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THE WARWICK
HISTORY READERS
SEVENTH BOOK

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM 1603
TO THE PRESENT TIME

BY

GEORGE H. ELY, B.A.

FORMERLY ASSISTANT MASTER IN THE UNITED WESTMINSTER SCHOOLS



LONDON
BLACKIE & SON, LIMITED, 50 OLD BAILEY, E.C.
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NOTE TO THE SEVENTH BOOK.

The writer of the present volume desires to acknowledge the use made, not only of the standard histories, and of recent works like Mr. Ransome's *Advanced History of England* and Mr. Hereford George's *Battles of English History*, but also and especially of the volumes on Cromwell, William the Third, Walpole, and Peel, in the *Twelve English Statesmen* series, and of articles in the *Dictionary of National Biography*.

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HISTORY OF ENGLAND

FROM 1603 TO THE PRESENT TIME.

THE REIGN OF JAMES THE FIRST.

(1603-1625.)

1. THE NEW KING.

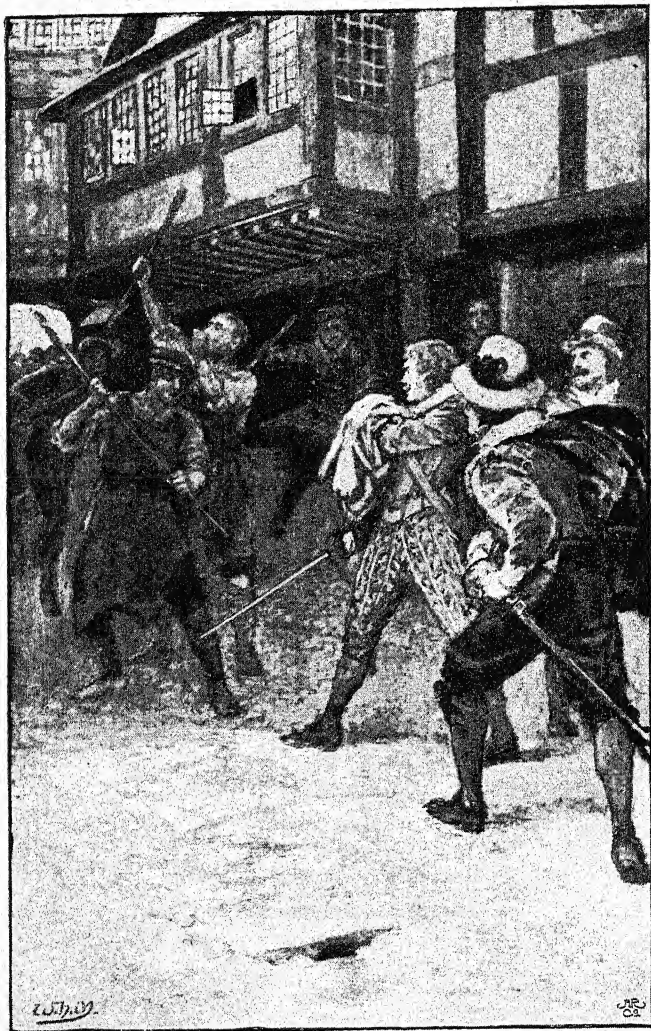
Queen Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors, died in March, 1603, and the crown of England passed to the prince who for many years had been regarded as the only possible successor. James VI. of Scotland, at this time in his thirty-seventh year, was the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and great-grandson of that Princess Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., who married the chivalrous James IV. of Scotland. He had been king of Scotland from his babyhood, and now that he was a grown man, with character fully formed, he was called upon to rule the larger kingdom. Thus the crowns of England and Scotland were united in the person of the first Stuart king, though not for yet a hundred years were the nations united in one parliament.

James belonged to an unfortunate family. His great-grandfather had fallen on the field of Flodden; his grandfather's death was hastened by news of the disastrous defeat at Solway Moss; his mother was beheaded. His own early life in Scotland had been beset with troubles, and his reign in England was one long

failure. When he died, he left his son heir to a quarrel which deluged England in blood and brought the king to the scaffold, and which was not ended until another king had been driven to seek safety in flight. In order to understand something of the causes of this misfortune and failure, we must try to realize the state of England when James came to govern it, and to see what there was in his character which made success impossible.

England had just lost one of the very greatest of her sovereigns. Elizabeth, through forty-five years of danger and difficulty, had so acted as to win the unbounded love and admiration of her subjects. She had been masterful, and violent, and sometimes cruel, but she had always known when to give way, and when to be merciful. She had chosen wise ministers, whom she trusted though she was not above abusing them. In particular, Englishmen felt that she was with them and for them against the world. She was English to the backbone, and the interests of the nation were safe in her hands. Perhaps the proudest moment of her life was when she rode at Tilbury among her troops gathered to resist the Armada, and won their frantic cheers by her declaration: "I know that I have the body but of a weak and feeble woman, but I have the heart of a king, and of a king of England too".

The last years of her life were spent in comparative repose. Spain was defeated; plots had been stamped out; and there was a lull in the contest between Roman Catholics, Churchmen, and Puritans. But the nation in general felt great distrust of the Roman Catholics, who were believed to be capable of all manner of deceit and treachery; and the Puritans, who were eager for a thorough reform in church doctrine and government, were, like the Catholics, punished for not conforming to



Street Scene in London, time of James I.

the established worship of the land. All these parties hoped for better treatment from the new sovereign.

Neither in person nor in character was the new king likely to please Englishmen. In the place of the handsome Henry VIII. and the stately Elizabeth men saw an awkward, big-headed figure, with prominent eyes, a tongue



James I.

too large for his mouth, rickety legs, and padded clothes. He was learned, witty, and far-seeing; but he had no sense of personal dignity, was unpleasant in his habits, and gave way to fits of silly buffoonery most unsuitable to a king. While he enjoyed the company of learned men, with whom he could talk on difficult ques-

tions of religion or politics, he was fond also of gay and riotous companions, with whom he indulged in coarse jesting and undignified fooling. Though his own life was pure, among the members of his court were some of the most evil men of the time.

James's learning was a misfortune rather than a blessing to him. He was undoubtedly clever, and so proud of his cleverness that he believed nobody could be right but

himself. Though his plans were often wise and excellent, yet he never learnt how to put them wisely into practice. A witty French statesman, the Duke of Sully, called him "the wisest fool in Christendom". He never understood the temper and spirit of Englishmen; he wished to be as absolute a king as Henry VIII. had been, and could not see how greatly the circumstances of the nation had changed since Henry's time.

One belief he had which was the chief cause of all the trouble of the next hundred years. He believed in the "divine right of kings": that is, he thought that he was king, not merely by descent, but by some special ordinance of God. He declared that although a good king would rule according to law, yet he was not bound to do so unless he chose, and that the people ought to accept his will as law with unquestioning obedience. In a wise king this belief might have caused no trouble; in a foolish one, as we shall see, it worked terrible mischief.

2. RELIGIOUS PARTIES.

A warning of his approaching difficulties came to James before he reached London. He was met near Newmarket by a number of Puritan clergymen, who presented to him a petition,¹ asking that certain changes should be made in the teaching and ceremonies of the Church. They made their request with some confidence, because the changes they desired had already been made in the kingdom from which James had just come. But James had much cause to dislike these zealous religious reformers. They had irritated him beyond endurance in his own country, by

¹ Called the "Millenary Petition", because it was intended to get 1000 signatures to it (Lat. *mille*, a thousand).

what he considered their want of respect for his high office, and his release from their severity was one of the benefits he expected from his accession to the larger throne. All James would promise was that a conference should be held, at which he would discuss the subjects of the petition with the bishops and some of the petitioners.

The conference was held in the beginning of 1604. Some of the Puritan demands James was inclined to agree to; but he had no sympathy with their dislike of the sign of the cross in baptism, of the surplice, and of the ring in the marriage ceremony, and he refused to have these abolished. The unlucky mention of the word "Presbytery" by one of the Puritan divines provoked a violent outburst from the king, who abused the petitioners and then drove them from the room. The Scots had adopted the Presbyterian form of church government, which James hated, because, he said, it placed Tom, Dick, and Jack in a position to criticise him and his council. Declaring that if the Puritans could talk of nothing but Presbyteries he would harry them out of the land, "or else do worse", he broke up the conference. One lasting good resulted from it—the publication, seven years afterwards, of a revised translation of the Bible, which is still in common use, and which will remain for ever a noble monument of literary English.

Finding that the king was so firmly on their side, the bishops ventured to issue some new church laws which were entirely contrary to the views of the Puritans. Two hundred clergymen who would not accept them were turned out of their livings, and, leaving the Church altogether, became *Nonconformists*.

The Roman Catholics, like the Puritans, had hoped much from their new sovereign. They suffered under



Guy Fawkes before James I.

cruelly severe laws. They had to pay heavy fines if convicted of non-attendance at their parish church; the priest who celebrated mass, and the people who attended it, were alike liable to die the death of traitors. As James's mother had been a Roman Catholic, the Catholics expected that James would relax some of these laws; indeed, he had let it be known that he was inclined to do so. But when it came to the point, he found that the feeling of the Parliament, and of his own ministers, was altogether against any change; and, moreover, he could not bring himself to give up the revenue yielded by the Catholic fines. Plots, too, were formed against him, in which Catholics and Puritans shared; and the result was that the laws were put in force with even more severity, and the priests were banished from the country.

This harsh treatment produced the famous Gunpowder Plot of 1605. Under the leadership of a gentleman named Robert Catesby, a number of Catholics formed the design of blowing up the Houses of Parliament on the first day of the session, when the king, his sons, and his ministers would all be present. The cellars under the House of Lords were rented, and there the conspirators stored some barrels of gunpowder. Running short of money, they sought help from some wealthy men, one of whom, having a friend in the House of Lords, warned him in an anonymous letter not to attend the opening of Parliament. The letter was brought before the council, who allowed James to claim the credit of being the first to suspect, from one of its dark phrases, that gunpowder was to be employed.

Two days before the meeting of Parliament the cellars were searched, and the gunpowder was discovered in the charge of a Yorkshire Catholic soldier of fortune named

Guy Fawkes. He was arrested; the other conspirators, who were waiting in Warwickshire for news of the explosion, fled when they heard of the failure of their scheme. They fought desperately when overtaken; Catesby and another were killed, and the rest, with Fawkes, were tried for treason and put to a horrible death.

The result of the detection of this evil scheme was that the Catholics were hated and persecuted more than ever. It was forgotten that only a few desperate men had been engaged in the plot; every Catholic was regarded as capable of any enormity, and for many years the Catholics were deprived of rights which other citizens enjoyed.

3. PARLIAMENT.

From the beginning to the end of his reign, James was in difficulties with his parliaments. The powers of Parliament were not then so clearly fixed as they are now, and most people thought that Parliament existed, not to propose measures independently of the king, or to control his ministers, but simply to vote grants of money, and advise the king when he asked advice. But Parliament itself was beginning to have larger notions of its duties, and James had not the good sense to humour it, as Elizabeth had done.

The first cause of disagreement was the religious question. Parliament, though not wholly Puritan in character, wished James to give way to some of the demands of the Puritans, because it believed that by so doing he would increase the Church's power for good. The members were angry at his refusal, and this, together with their dislike and jealousy of the Scotsmen who thronged

his court, led them to raise a short-sighted opposition to his proposal for a complete union with Scotland. Thus James was offended in turn.

There was disagreement also on money matters. Elizabeth, with all her thrift, had been unable to govern the country without getting into debt. James, having left a poor country for a rich one, carelessly plunged into extravagance which enormously increased his debts, and left him constantly short of money. To supply his wants he imposed duties on articles of trade without asking the consent of Parliament; and the judges decided, in the case of a merchant who refused to pay, that the king was only acting within his right. Sir Robert Cecil (Earl of Salisbury), who till his death in 1612 was chief minister, at once levied new *impositions*, as taxes of this kind were called.

Irritated at this, the Commons tried to make a bargain with James. They induced him to agree to give up, in return for £200,000 a year, some taxes which were one of the last remnants of the feudal system. They promised to allow him the greater part of the impositions, if he would agree that no more should be levied without a grant from Parliament. Disputes arose on the details of the plan, with the unfortunate result that the *Great Contract*, as it was called, was given up.

These disagreements led James to try to do without a Parliament. After Cecil's death, instead of seeking the advice of wise men, such as Bacon, the lord chancellor, he trusted to young and shallow favourites, who had nothing to recommend them but grace, good looks, and a lively manner. The first of these was Robert Carr, created Earl of Somerset, who by and by fell into disgrace and was replaced by George Villiers, afterwards Duke of Buck-

ingham, a man who had a most injurious influence in public affairs.

In his relations with foreign countries James was as unsuccessful in pleasing the nation as in purely domestic business. Spain was the country which Englishmen hated and despised more than any other, and yet James was actually proposing to make an alliance with Spain. His intention was good: he wished, by connecting himself with the strongest continental power, to keep peace in Europe, and to prevent further quarrels between the Catholic and the Protestant nations. But he did not understand how Englishmen felt with regard to the country which had done its best to crush the Protestant religion and to conquer England. When, therefore, he proposed to marry his eldest son, Henry, to a Spanish princess—with an eye to the dowry she would bring, as well as to the political benefits of an alliance with Spain—the English temper was thoroughly aroused. Prince Henry died in his nineteenth year, but James formed a similar marriage scheme for his surviving son, Charles, though circumstances caused it to be dropped for a time.

The death of Prince Henry was a great blow to the nation, for his kindliness and good sense had given promise of a useful and successful life. His popularity was shared by his favourite sister, the princess Elizabeth, who was married in the year after her brother's death to Frederick, the Elector Palatine, the chief of the Protestant princes of Germany. Englishmen were much pleased by this marriage. In the year 1619 a revolution in Bohemia drove the Catholic king from the throne and set Elizabeth's husband in his place. When news reached England that the Spaniards were preparing to expel Frederick from Bohemia, Englishmen were eager to fight

on his behalf, and many volunteers joined his army. His defeat at Prague, in the first great battle of the Thirty Years' War, caused intense anger and excitement in England, and a new Parliament, which met in 1621, was ready to grant immediate supplies for a war with Spain.

But James, loving peace, and confident in his powers of persuasion, hesitated to take decided action on behalf of his son-in-law. He promised that if negotiations failed he would send a force to the Palatinate; but the Commons were irritated by the delay, and turned their attention, in no pleasant humour, to the discussion of home affairs.

4. THE END OF THE REIGN.

James's lavish expenditure and subjection to self-seeking favourites made his court a hot-bed of political corruption. High places in the State were sold freely, and if a man wished to be made a peer he had only to give a handsome present to my lord Buckingham. Trade monopolies, too, were in great part in the hands of the court, and though designed for the encouragement of trade and the protection of inventions, they often resulted in injustice and oppression.

To these abuses the Commons now turned their attention. They first attacked the monopolies, with so much determination that James wisely abolished the worst of them, and allowed some of the holders of them to be punished. The Commons then proceeded against no less a personage than the lord-chancellor of the realm. Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, famous to after ages as a writer and philosopher, had done good work for England, and might have done better if James would have heeded his advice.

He was charged by the Commons with receiving bribes in the course of his legal duties in the chancery court. In those days the salaries of judges were small, and it was the custom for the successful party in a suit to pay the judge a high fee. Bacon admitted that he had received such presents both before and after cases had been decided, though he assured the Lords who examined the charges against him that he had never allowed his judgments to be influenced by such payments. He said, no doubt with perfect truth, that he had been the justest judge in England since the time of his father, Elizabeth's chancellor, Sir Nicholas. Condemned by the Lords, Bacon was sentenced to pay a heavy fine, to be im-



Sir Francis Bacon.

prisoned during the king's pleasure, and to be for ever banished from office and the court. The fine and the imprisonment were remitted by the king; but the sentence, besides striking a blow at corruption in high places, showed that Parliament held the king's ministers responsible to it. This claim had great consequences in after years.

James was still anxious to marry his son Charles to a Spanish princess. Such a marriage could not be brought

about unless he would promise to allow the Roman Catholics freedom of worship in England. The Commons were altogether opposed to this, and drew up a petition asking that the laws against the Catholics should be more strictly carried out, and that the prince should find a Protestant wife. James was angry at what he considered meddlesome interference with his family concerns, and told the Commons to mind their own business, declaring that he had the power to punish any of them if their conduct displeased him. This led to a strong protest from the Commons, who asserted that they had the right to discuss with absolute freedom matters connected with the State. A few days later James sent for the journals of the House, and tore out the leaf containing this protest, as though by doing so he could destroy men's rights and curb their speech.

So far from giving up the idea of the Spanish marriage, he held to it still more firmly. He thought that the King of Spain would be willing to restore the Elector Palatine to his dominions if, under the marriage contract, liberty of worship were granted to the Roman Catholics in England. The bright idea occurred to Buckingham of a plan to hasten matters. It was not usual in those days for princes to court in person the ladies they wished to marry, and Buckingham thought that if Charles went to Madrid to visit the princess, her father would be pleased by the compliment, and be ready to promise anything.

So the two young men set out, and reached Madrid after a number of amusing and sometimes dangerous adventures. But they utterly failed to achieve their object; their easy manners offended the stiff Spaniards, the young princess herself declared she would never marry a Protestant, and the king demanded concessions which

even Charles, ready as he was with promises, dared not promise. Charles was indignant; and when he returned to England eager to go to war with Spain, the nation was delighted.

The members of the new Parliament then summoned were in a mood to grant ample supplies; but their ardour was damped when they learnt that Charles was to marry, instead of the Spanish princess, the Catholic sister of the King of France. Buckingham saw that it



George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham.

would be useless in these circumstances to ask Parliament for money, but he was determined nevertheless to go to war. An army was quickly raised to help the Elector against Spain, and was put under the command of Count Mansfeld, an adventurous officer of the Elector's. But the men, sent to Holland without money or provisions, soon fell a prey to want and disease, and the expedition ended in miserable failure.

A few months afterwards, James died. He had begun to doubt the wisdom of his favourite Buckingham, who had of late shared with Charles the guidance of affairs. The new king began his reign with Buckingham as his friend and adviser.

5. THE ULSTER SETTLEMENT—THE FIRST COLONIES.

The reign of James I. is important, not only for the beginning of the struggle between King and Parliament, but also for momentous events in the history of Ireland, and for the beginning of the British Colonies.

Ever since the time when Henry II. began the conquest of Ireland, that country had been a source of trouble to England. It had never been really subdued, and remaining attached to the Roman Catholic Church at the Reformation, the hatred which the native Irish felt for the English was increased by religious differences. One after another the English governors had failed to put down disorder and establish peaceful government. If quelled for a time, rebellion broke out again as soon as the strong hand was removed.

In James's reign, an excellent governor, Lord Mountjoy, raised a line of forts in the north-west, by means of which he was able to prevent the men of Ulster, under their chief, the Earl of Tyrone, from making war. Mountjoy's successor, a high-minded officer named Arthur Chichester, endeavoured to protect the poor against the oppression of their own chiefs; and his rule was so firm that, after a vain attempt at resistance, Tyrone fled from the country.

Then, in order to secure a lasting settlement, Chichester proposed a method of dealing with the lands of the rebel Irish chiefs, which were forfeited to the English crown. His plan was to give back to the Irish lords and their followers some of the best of the land, and to divide the rest among industrious English and Scotch settlers of good character. When the division was made, the best land was given, contrary to Chichester's wish, to the English and Scotch, and the Irish had to put up with

what was left. They were intensely angry at this, the more so as they regarded the whole land as theirs by right, and the new settlers as foreign thieves. The arrangement secured peace and prosperity in Ulster, for the British settlers worked with a will at cultivating their lands. But the ill-feeling created among the natives by the wrong done them has never died away.

We saw in the previous volume that Sir Walter Raleigh had conceived the idea of founding a colony in America under the name Virginia. When Raleigh was prevented by his imprisonment from attempting to carry out his idea, it was taken up by a company of merchants, who obtained from James a charter under the title of the Virginia Company, giving them permission to colonize the new country. An expedition was prepared and sent out to Virginia in 1607. Among its members was a man named John Smith, whose life forms one of the most romantic stories in English history. A native of Lincolnshire, before he was thirty years old he had fought in the Netherlands and in Germany; he had been sold as a slave in Constantinople, and after escaping had fought against the Moors in Spain. It was his courage and dogged resolution that prevented the expedition from becoming an utter failure.

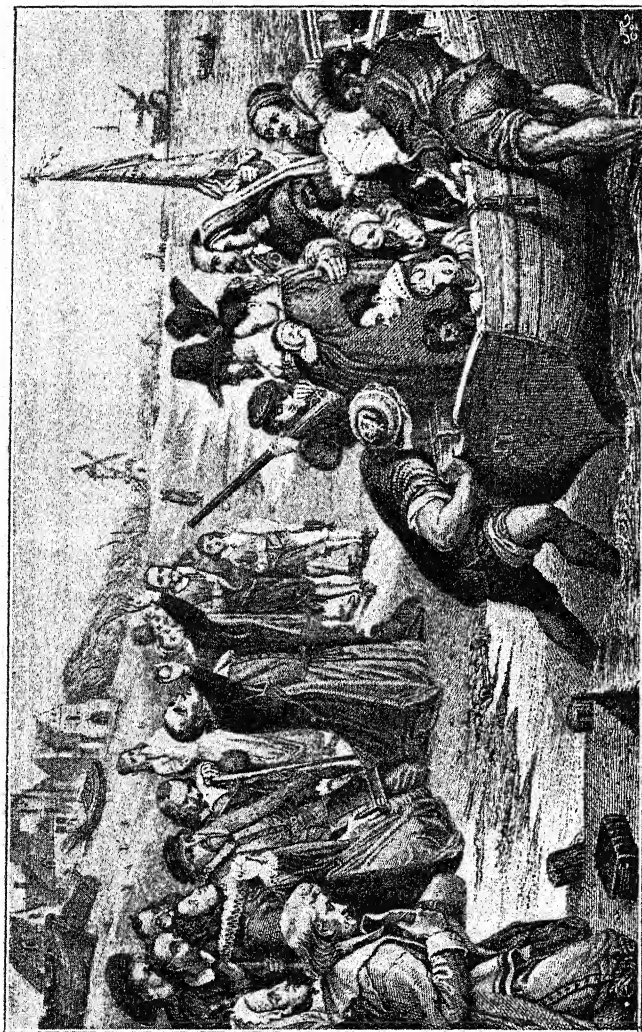
After passing through a period of difficulty and distress, the colony of Virginia was firmly established. The colonists occupied themselves chiefly in tobacco-planting, and before long they became a wealthy community. Other colonists came from England from time to time, and by and by Maryland was settled, to the north of Virginia. The people of these colonies were mainly members of the Church of England and Catholics of gentle birth. They allowed freedom in religion, and be-

coming owners of large estates, lived like country gentlemen at home. They worked their estates by slave labour, and were the founders of the prosperous southern states of America.

Thirteen years after the Virginian expedition, a very different band of emigrants sailed across the Atlantic in the *Mayflower*, and made a settlement on the bleaker shores of New England. These were Puritans who, after living for some years in Holland to escape persecution in England, had decided to seek a new home in America. They were mainly farmers and tradesmen, and in their American home they carried on the occupations they had followed in England. They, too, had their difficulties. Disease carried off half their number, but others came to join them as persecution in England became more severe, and the colony survived all perils and in time became prosperous.

The New England colonists were not so easy-going and tolerant as the people of Virginia. They were somewhat hard and narrow-minded, and would allow no one to stay among them who did not think as they did in religious matters.

Virginia, New England, and Maryland were thus the first British colonies. At first they were governed from England, but very soon it was found that they must be allowed to look after their own affairs. So they elected parliaments of their own, though they still owned allegiance to the English crown.



Departure of the Pilgrim Fathers from Delft Haven, July, 1620.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES THE FIRST.

(1625-1649.)

1. THE RULE OF BUCKINGHAM.—I.

Charles I., who became king at the age of twenty-five, had more than his share of the misfortunes of the Stuart family. Delicate as a boy, he had had no regular education, and had thus missed the opportunity of mental improvement which study provides. Shy and reserved, his boyish admiration was captivated by the showy Buckingham, whose good looks, high spirits, and easy manners concealed his ignorance and folly. Alternately petted and scolded by his father, Charles was a spoilt child, determined to have his own way, and sullen if his will was opposed. With nothing of his father's ability, he had more than James's obstinacy and firm belief in his 'divine right'; and to these he added a disposition to make, if it suited his immediate purpose, promises which he would break without hesitation.

His troubles began at once. He thought that he could act in entire independence of the wishes of Parliament, and yet obtain from Parliament grants of money which, for all it knew, might be used for purposes and in ways of which it did not approve. He demanded from his first Parliament a large sum of money for the purpose of carrying on a war with Spain. But there were several reasons why the Commons were unwilling to make a large grant. The war had opened with the disaster to Mansfield's expedition, for which they blamed Buckingham, and they were by no means sure that the money they might vote would be spent in such a way as to win success. They also found that Charles had broken a

promise made in connection with his marriage with the French Princess Henrietta—the promise that the Roman Catholic worship should not be allowed in England.

These, with other causes, induced the Commons to make only a small grant, and to vote a tax, called *tonnage and poundage*, for one year only, instead of for the king's life, as was usually done. They also asked Charles to enforce more strictly the laws against Catholics. Charles was irritated at their want of confidence, and when he heard that they proposed to impeach Buckingham he hastily dissolved Parliament.



King Charles the First.

Thinking that the members would

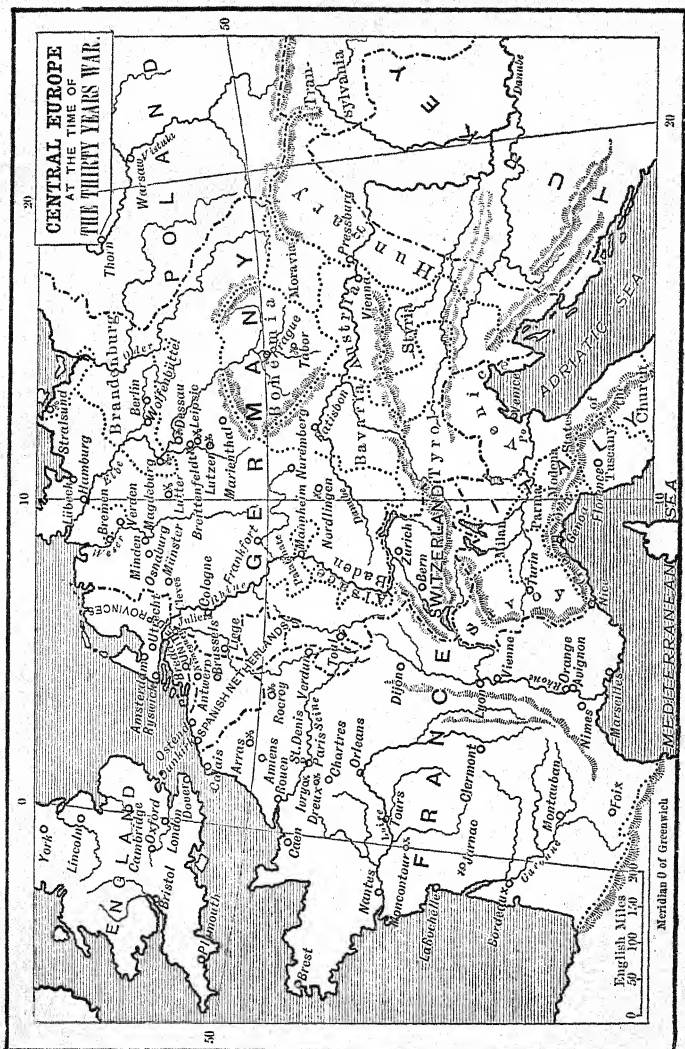
be in a more generous humour if some great success were gained in the war, Buckingham organized an expedition to sack the Spanish fortress-town of Cadiz. But this expedition, unlike those of Drake and Essex years before, turned out a complete failure, and did Buckingham's name and influence nothing but harm. The king's difficulties caused him to summon a second Parliament, from which he cunningly kept the men who had been his principal opponents in the first by making them sheriffs in their counties.

One man, however, of the highest character and ability stood forth as leader of the party opposed to the king. This was Sir John Eliot, a Cornish squire who had been Buckingham's friend, but who, seeing that Buckingham was working ruin for his country, became his most determined opponent. Eliot took a prominent part in drawing up articles of impeachment against the favourite, in which, along with much that was true, there were also false and ungenerous charges made. Charles, determined that Parliament should not control his ministers, sent Eliot a prisoner to the Tower, but the Commons refused to go on with their business until he was released. Finding that there was no hope of agreement unless he dismissed Buckingham, the king again dissolved Parliament, without having got the money he wanted.

2. THE RULE OF BUCKINGHAM.—II.

Charles was now at his wit's end to find the money that was absolutely necessary to meet the expenses of government, and to furnish the support which had been promised to struggling Protestants abroad. He first thought of what was called a *free gift*, which was really a demand, made in each county by the county officials, that the people should make a present of a good sum to the king. This roused so much opposition, and money came in so slowly, that Charles went a step further and arranged for a *forced loan*. By this, men were compelled to "lend" money to the king, without interest, and with but small prospect of repayment. The judges at once decided that such a demand was illegal, and the chief justice was dismissed from office for venturing to dispute the will of the king.

CENTRAL EUROPE
AT THE TIME OF
THE THIRTY YEARS WAR.



Encouraged by the judges' decision, several rich men refused to lend money, and Charles immediately sent them to prison. Poor men suffered still worse, for some were told that if they did not pay they would be carried off as soldiers to the war, while others were forced to find board and lodging for the rough, half-starved soldiers whom Charles had not money enough to pay.

At this critical time war broke out with France. Charles had acted towards the French king with his usual want of good faith, and among the causes of the quarrel between the countries was the dismissal of the queen's French attendants, whom Charles sent away because, while they influenced her, he said, he could not call his wife his own. It happened that the Protestants of Rochelle, on the south-west coast of France, had rebelled against the French king, and were standing a siege. Buckingham arranged for an expedition to proceed to their help, and took the command himself. Not altogether through fault of his, this affair, like the Cadiz expedition, was an utter failure, and the English people were furious at the disgrace.

Preparations were begun for another expedition, and meanwhile money was wanted more than ever. A third Parliament was called, and among the members were the same men who had before resisted Charles, and who were now determined to put a stop to the wrongs of which the country complained. Led by Sir Thomas Wentworth, a rich and able Yorkshire gentleman who had himself been imprisoned for refusing to lend to the king, the Commons drew up the famous *Petition of Right*, declaring that they would vote no supplies until Charles had agreed to its articles. In this petition they demanded that no gift, loan, or tax should be levied without consent of

Parliament, that no man should be imprisoned without cause shown, that soldiers should not be billeted on private houses, and that no man should be judged by martial law in time of peace.

Charles only gave his assent to this important bill after much hesitation. The members, pleased at having won their point, granted a large sum of money, but then proceeded to draw up a "remonstrance" against certain evils in the government of Church and State, and particularly against the actions of Buckingham. Charles refused either to dismiss Buckingham or to allow him to make any answer to their charges; and when the Commons again raised the question of tonnage and poundage, he at once prorogued the Parliament.

Meanwhile Buckingham was preparing to start with his second expedition to Rochelle. He knew how much he was hated, and some of his friends advised him to be on his guard against violence; but he was not without a kind of lofty courage which scorned to take any precaution. He was at Portsmouth, just ready to embark, when, as he left the breakfast-room one morning, he was met by a half-mad officer named Felton, who struck him a heavy blow with a dagger, crying, "God have mercy on thy soul!" Buckingham fell dead: one great enemy of the Parliament was removed.

3. THE TYRANNY.—I.

King Charles, left without his friend and adviser by the murder of Buckingham, found an active and zealous supporter in William Laud, Bishop of London. Laud was a man of pure life and unselfish aims, but one who was fatally lacking in the personal charm and the sym-

pathetic mind which win respect and love. Observing the disorders in the Church, and the want of agreement between clergymen with regard to doctrine and ceremony, Laud wished to settle these differences by enforcing uniformity in belief and worship throughout the land, in



Archbishop Laud.

accordance with the practice of the Church before the rise of the Puritans. He was himself strongly in favour of high ceremonial, and as strongly opposed to some of the doctrines of the strict Calvinists, and he could not see that the motives of those who differed from him might be as pure as his own.

For some years it had been the custom to place the communion-table near the centre of the church, where it had been available for any member of the congregation to rest his hat upon. Laud believed that the right place for the table was within rails at the east end of the church, and that it should be treated with great reverence as an altar. Ministers had also been accustomed to travel about the country, preaching in the churches of other ministers. Laud disapproved of this, thinking that a minister should not, as a rule, preach anywhere but in

his own church. He ordered all the clergymen of his own diocese to do as he wished in these and other matters, and those Puritans who refused were brought before the High Commission Court, of which Laud was president, and punished.

The House of Commons, as a whole, was opposed to Laud, because the members believed that his course of action would in the end bring England again under the power of the Pope. They also considered that the king had no right to command them to accept as undoubtedly true whatever the bishops taught, and they were particularly angry because the bishops were the strongest supporters of Charles's claim to absolute power. They were consequently determined to resist the introduction of the Laudian doctrines and ceremonies, and, in order to compel the king to listen to their complaints, they attacked his actions in regard to taxes.

They declared that to levy tonnage and poundage without consent of Parliament was contrary to the Petition of Right. But the king paid no attention, and when some merchants refused to pay the tax, they were summoned before the court of Star Chamber, fined, and imprisoned, their goods being seized by the customs officers. When the matter was brought before the courts, the judges decided in favour of the king; but the Commons, in indignation, ordered the customs officers to appear at the bar of the House, for infringing the privilege of Parliament in the case of one of the merchants who was a member. Charles refused to allow the officers to obey the order, and during an adjournment tried to come to terms with the parliamentary leaders. His attempt failing, when the House met again the king immediately ordered it to adjourn.

A scene of intense excitement then took place. The Speaker was leaving the chair, when two members, Holles and Valentine, held him down until Eliot should have proposed three resolutions which he had drawn up. A rush was made on one side to release the Speaker,



The Star Chamber, Westminster.

another on the other side to keep him in the chair; and when the word was passed round that the king was coming, a member rushed off to lock the doors. In the midst of the tumult Eliot read and moved his three famous resolutions, declaring (1) that anyone who brought in "innovations" in religion, (2) anyone who advised or took part in the levy of tonnage and poundage without consent of Parliament, and (3) anyone who paid the tax so levied was an enemy to the kingdom. These resolutions having been carried amid ringing cheers, the excited House adjourned.

For his part in that day's work Eliot, with Holles,

Valentine, and seven other members, was arrested and thrown into the Tower. There the great orator and patriot, after three and a half years' rigid imprisonment, died, a martyr for English liberty. If he had submitted to the king, he would have been released; but he nobly refused to budge from the position he had taken up. Charles showed unkingly meanness, not only in his treatment of Eliot when he fell ill, but also, after his death, in refusing to allow his body to be buried in the family grave in Cornwall. In this he was unlike that other Charles, the great Charles V. of Austria, who, when asked to open Luther's grave and burn his bones, replied with kingly dignity: "I war not with the dead".

4. THE TYRANNY.—II.

By this time Charles had had enough of parliaments. Meeting with nothing but opposition from them, he decided to do without them altogether, and rule at his uncontrolled pleasure. The Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were wholly devoted to his service, the former dealing with civil offenders, the latter with Puritan clergymen who would not agree to the changes Laud was making. If a man spoke or wrote against the king or the bishops, he was forthwith haled before the Star Chamber, condemned, and sentenced to be fined, flogged, or mutilated.

In 1633 Laud was made archbishop of Canterbury, and then his activity, formerly pretty much confined to his own diocese of London, was extended to the whole country. One of his first actions was to re-issue a *Declaration of Sports*, which permitted people to engage in pastimes on Sunday afternoon, as the custom had been

before the Reformation. The observance of Sunday as a day to be devoted to worship and serious reading had been for years growing more strict, so that this declaration much offended the conscience of many of the clergy, especially as they were ordered to read it whether they agreed with it or not. Those of them who refused to read it, or who raised objections to other of Laud's changes, were sentenced by the High Commission Court to be suspended, or to be deprived of their livings.

No man was safe from outrageous treatment if he dared to say a word against the authorities. The Chief Justice, for doing what he thought was his duty, was rebuked by Laud, like a schoolboy by his master. "I have almost been choked by a pair of lawn sleeves", he said, as he came out, flushed and indignant, from the council chamber. William Prynne, a puritan lawyer who wrote a very severe and, as we should think, extreme book against stage plays, had his ears lopped off. When he added to his offence by writing against the bishops, he lost the stumps of his ears, and in other ways suffered severely. Laud's motto was "thorough", as he wrote to his friend the governor of Ireland.

This governor was no other than Wentworth, the very man who had led the House of Commons in drawing up the Petition of Right. After the passing of that Petition, Wentworth went over to the side of the king, was made a baron, and soon afterwards became president of the Council of the North, a body which had wide powers in the north of England. It is believed that Wentworth was entirely honest in leaving his old friends. Men like Eliot and Pym wished to make Parliament absolutely supreme in the government, but Wentworth believed that strong government could only be carried on by the king

and wise ministers, whom he considered better able to decide what measures were needful than a large body of ill-informed country gentlemen and stiff lawyers.

There was much sound sense in this view; Wentworth's mistake lay in supposing that any minister, however wise and powerful, could rule in opposition to the inclinations of the nation. After a few years of hard work in the north, Wentworth was made governor of Ireland, where he introduced the linen manufacture, improved trade and commerce, and succeeded in establishing order and a better government. But in



Thomas, Baron Wentworth, Earl of Strafford.

carrying out his statesmanlike plans he often employed severe and sometimes illegal methods, and the hatred which these won him shut men's eyes to the undoubted benefits of his rule. The king rewarded him, after a time, with the title of Earl of Strafford.

Meanwhile, a question of the very greatest importance had arisen in England. Charles, wishing to increase his fleet, followed old-established custom in asking seaport

towns to provide either ships, or money for the purchase of ships. The towns responded willingly enough. Pleased at this, Charles issued a second writ for *Ship-money*, as it was called; but this time he included inland towns, giving no special reason for his action. Again the tax was paid, though with some grumbling. Still more delighted, Charles issued a third writ, by the advice of Laud and with Strafford's full agreement. Then great indignation arose; men everywhere cried out that the tax was illegal without consent of Parliament, and that the reason given, the king's wish to increase his fleet, was a mere idle tale.

One stalwart Buckingham squire, named John Hampden, refused to pay the small sum required of him, his only motive being to bring the legality of the king's action to the test. His case came before twelve judges, seven of whom decided wholly in favour of the king. But the people, who watched the case keenly, saw that Hampden's advocates had the best of the argument, and from that moment a strong spirit of active resistance to the king made itself felt. One of the judges, in his anxiety to please Charles, declared that no law could forbid the king to command his subjects in any way that he pleased, and this declaration only made men hate the tax the more.

5. THE TYRANNY.—III.

Though by this time they might have seen that the temper of the nation was growing hot against them, Charles and Laud went one step further in their course of tyranny. In Scotland the Presbyterian form of worship and church government was established, though



signing the Covenant in the Churchyard of the Greyfriars, Edinburgh.

there were still bishops, who, however, had little or no authority. Laud wished to extend his system of "thorough" uniformity to Scotland, and therefore ordered a new liturgy, prepared on the model of the English one, to be used in Scottish churches. The Scots hated this liturgy, not only because it disagreed with their adopted form of religion, but because it was drawn up by bishops and came from England. When it was read in Edinburgh for the first time a riot occurred, and people utterly refused to accept the liturgy. Charles threatened force, and immediately all classes of Scotsmen flocked to sign a National Covenant, binding them to defend their religion by every means in their power. Soon after, a Church Assembly abolished episcopacy and the prayer-book, and Charles prepared for war.

With a half-hearted and badly-trained army, Charles, though he had called Strafford from Ireland to help him, was no match for the sturdy Scots veterans under their general, Alexander Leslie. He gave way without fighting, and by Strafford's advice called a Parliament. This met in April, 1640, the first parliament for eleven years. But, led by John Pym, the Commons refused any supplies until the misgovernment of which they complained was ended, and asked Charles to come to terms with the Scots. Charles, with his usual impatience, dissolved the Parliament, which is known in history as the *Short Parliament*.

Strafford now advised Charles to take strong measures against his opponents, but the king hesitated, and sent abroad asking aid from foreign kings. A small English force was despatched to the north, but it soon fell back before a Scots army which crossed the Tweed; and when the king asked the Council of Peers what he should do, they would only advise the calling of a new Parliament.

Accordingly, on November 3, 1640, the famous *Long Parliament* began its sittings.

Its first proceeding was to impeach the great Earl of Strafford. Pym drew up a strong indictment against him, charging him with the serious crime of treason. But it was soon found that, though Strafford had undoubtedly been guilty of high-handed actions, and had many times violated the law, he had done nothing which the Lords would judge to be treason. An act of attainder was therefore substituted for the impeachment.

Among the evidence against Strafford were the notes of a speech made by him in the Council Chamber, in which he said to the king, "You have an army in Ireland you may employ here to reduce this kingdom". The notes had been taken down by Sir Henry Vane, one of the Secretaries of State, and had been found by his son when turning over his father's papers. The Commons argued that by "this kingdom" Strafford had meant England, and they contended that his suggestion was treason against the kingdom, and therefore against the king. The Lords were reluctant even now to find Strafford guilty, but when Pym brought before them letters which proved that the queen was forming plots for his rescue, and for the subjection of the Parliament, they passed the act of attainder, declaring the earl worthy of death.

The king's consent was required before Strafford could be executed. Charles had assured his faithful servant that he would be answerable for his safety. "Upon the word of a king, you shall not suffer in life, honour, or fortune", he said. But the word of this king was of little worth. Riots took place in Westminster and the city; furious mobs gathered outside the palace windows, crying out against the queen, and demanding vengeance

on Strafford. Charles feared that his family would suffer; his queen begged him to let the Parliament have their way; and, after weakly asking advice from first one and then another, he gave his consent to the execution. It was the meanest of all the mean actions that stain Charles's reputation, and he suffered for it, for Strafford was the one man who was strong enough to help him against his foes. The Parliament knew that; and, therefore, when the great man's head fell on the block, the supporters of the Parliament sent forth a shout of triumph.

6. THE GREAT REBELLION.—I.

In consenting to Strafford's execution, Charles gave his cause away. A resolute refusal might not only have saved Strafford, but might have brought to the king's side a host of devoted supporters. As it was, Parliament had practically conquered the king, and in its elation was ready to found a tyranny as bad as his.

Ship-money was at once declared illegal, and the courts of Star Chamber and High Commission were abolished by Parliament. Religious questions were then discussed, and the Commons, who had sent Laud to the Tower, showed themselves resolved to undo all the archbishop's work. A great number of them wished to do away with the bishops altogether, but this proposal caused a division among the king's opponents, some of whom had begun to believe that the Parliament had gone far enough. A massacre of Protestants in Ireland, however, for which the king was considered partly to blame, provoked renewed hostility to him.

At length Pym and Hampden carried through the Commons the *Grand Remonstrance*, a document which

recounted in order the errors and faults of Charles's government, and demanded that in future the king should choose his ministers in accordance with the wishes of Parliament, and that religious affairs should be placed in the hands of an assembly of clergymen. Two days after the Remonstrance was passed, Charles returned to London from a visit to Scotland. Disturbances occurred between his officers and the people, and the bishops were attacked by the mob and dared not attend in their places in the House of Lords. When the Commons sent some of them to prison, for protesting against what was done by the Lords in their absence, Charles determined to impeach some of the leading spirits for high treason.

Accordingly, he sent to the House to arrest five members, of whom Pym was the chief. But as impeached persons could only be arrested by order of the House of Lords, the Commons paid no attention to the king's demand. Next day, urged on by his queen, who was always his bad angel, Charles himself went to the



John Hampden.

House with a company of cavaliers. Entering the chamber alone, he soon saw that the five members were not in their places. Unable to learn from the Speaker where they were, he had to retire, baffled and angry, while some of the members cried "Privilege! privilege!" as he passed out.

The five members had taken refuge in the City, and though Charles pleaded with the City Council in person, nothing would induce the citizens to give them up. Accordingly a royal proclamation was issued for the apprehension of the five members. The committees of the House of Commons, sitting safely in the City, replied to this by making great preparations to bring them back in triumph to Westminster. The Houses of Parliament were guarded by strong bodies of the city train-bands. A jeering mob gathered round the gates of Whitehall, and their cries could be heard in the innermost rooms of the palace. Charles was weary of his humiliating position in London, and those around him had fears for his personal safety.

At last the king and queen, with their retinue, left Whitehall for Hampton Court; Charles never saw London again till he returned to die. The victory of the Parliament over the sovereign was completed on the following day. From London Bridge to Westminster the Thames was covered with pleasure-barges and row-boats filled with citizens. A squadron of "lighters" and other vessels, armed with small cannon and gaily dressed with flags, escorted the barges of the Commons on their return to Westminster.

The train-bands of the City, commanded by the sheriffs, marched along the Strand and under the windows of Whitehall Palace. A crowd of exulting citizens accom-

panied them, among whom the mocking cry was raised, "Where are now the king and his cavaliers?" The sheriffs were called into the House, and there received the thanks of all the members for the hospitality and protection they had accorded to them.

7. THE GREAT REBELLION.—II.

Both sides now made preparations for war. From the first Charles was confident of success. When he raised his standard at Nottingham, on August 21st, 1642, he was at once joined by a large majority of the House of Lords and a good number of the Commons. Knights and country gentlemen flocked to his side, not only those who agreed with him and detested the Puritans, but also some who, believing he was in the wrong, yet felt it their duty to support their king.

The country divided itself roughly into two great parts. The north and west—wild, with a small population, but a great stronghold of the Church and the Lords—held by the king; the south and east—rich, with a large and industrious population of traders and farmers, strongly Puritan in character—declared for the Parliament. London was for the Parliament, which thus had all the resources of the great city at its command. The Parliament appropriated the taxes and customs duties; the king had to depend on the free offerings of his supporters. There was no lack of generosity among them. Men melted down their plate, ladies sold their jewels to provide money for their king: many ruined themselves in his cause.

The rival armies differed greatly in material. The nobles and gentlemen on the king's side were expert in

the use of arms, and had proved their fearless horsemanship on many a hunting field. The royal army was thus strong in cavalry. The farmers and tradesmen who formed the bulk of the parliamentary army had the less dashing and brilliant qualities which mark their class;

but behind their stolid dulness and awkwardness

they had a reserve of force and determination which, under good leadership, was to prove them more than a match for their opponents.



Prince Rupert.

The first two years of the war passed without great success on either side. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, who was in charge of the

royal cavalry, succeeded as a rule in routing the opposing cavalry, while the infantry on either side could hold its own. After the first battle, at Edgehill in Warwickshire, which went in favour of the Royalists, Charles pushed on to London, and if he had succeeded in capturing it he might have vanquished his enemies. But he was met at Turnham Green by a large well-drilled force of the city trainbands, which had come to reinforce the army of Lord Essex, the parliamentary general. Hesitating to strike,

Charles fell back on Oxford, and lost his only chance of bringing the war to an early and successful conclusion.

Anxious to achieve a decisive success against the king, the Parliament sought the aid of the Scots. They, however, would give no assistance until assured that the Presbyterian form of religion should be established in England. This assurance was given in the *Solemn League and Covenant*, a document signed by the Commons. For the Puritans this was a great triumph, which was signalized by an outbreak of violence against what they regarded as signs of superstition in the churches. Stained-glass windows were broken in pieces; crosses and images were ruthlessly destroyed; organs, the tones of which were likened to the whining of pigs, were burnt; many quaint ornaments, rich carvings, and even private monuments, were utterly ruined by this blind but conscientious fury.

8. THE GREAT REBELLION.—III. OLIVER CROMWELL.—I.

Among the officers of the army of the Parliament there was one who, at first of no great eminence, had by this time begun to shine out as a military genius of a high order.

Oliver Cromwell, the younger son of a country gentleman, was born at Huntingdon, in April, 1599. Educated at Huntingdon Grammar-school and at Cambridge University, he acquired as much learning as most young men of his class, as well as a love of music and some taste for the arts. In 1617 the death of his father gave him possession of a modest property in Huntingdon, and three years later he married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bouchier, a London merchant.

Cromwell entered the House of Commons in his twenty-ninth year as member for his native town. In person he was stout, of middle height, with a fleshy, high-coloured, rugged face, and keen gray eyes. He was rough and forcible in manner and gesture, and his voice was loud and harsh. His speech was marked by sense and force; and there was strength and singleness of



Oliver Cromwell.

purpose in his simple words on the few occasions when he addressed the House. He had a strong love of justice, and an intense pity for the poor and weak. The sincere character of the man is partly shown by a remark he made when, in after years, he sat for his portrait to the famous German painter, Sir Peter Lely. "If you leave out the scars and

wrinkles," he cried, "I will not pay you a shilling." He wished to appear to posterity in his true likeness—his face lined and furrowed by the ravages of time, of war, of sleepless nights of illness and of anxious thought.

During the earlier years of the tyranny, Cromwell was engaged in farming at Huntingdon. Thence he removed to St. Ives, and afterwards to Ely, where some property had been left to him by his uncle. In these quiet years, which gave no promise of his future career, he was

regarded by those who knew him well as an upright man, of solid character and strong opinions, who was diligent in his business, loved his Bible, and befriended in a very thorough manner the clergymen whom Laud's measures had driven from their churches.

In 1640 he was elected member for Cambridge in the Long Parliament, and became at once an active and earnest supporter of Pym and his party. When war broke out, he was sent down to organize and equip the forces in the eastern counties, a task which he accomplished with the greatest vigour and success. In the prime of life, with no military experience, he showed a remarkable capacity for training and leading soldiers. He commanded a troop of horse in the Parliamentary army defeated at Edgehill, and saw at once that success in the contest could only be obtained by soldiers who could beat the king's brave and brilliant horsemen.

He set himself to form such a body of men, and raised among the farmers and townsmen of the eastern shires one of the finest bodies of cavalry that ever wielded sabre. He chose men of sober life and hardy frame, known to be fervent in the Puritan faith, zealous for what they believed to be the cause of God and of freedom. His troops comprised men of all shades of Puritan belief; they were one in their earnestness, their contempt of death, their obedience to discipline, their absolute devotion to their leader.

The quality of Cromwell's "lovely company", as he called it, partly shown in two small engagements in the summer and autumn of 1643, was convincingly proved in the great battle of Marston Moor. A Parliamentary army under Lord Fairfax, aided by the Scots under the Earl of Leven, was besieging York, held for the king by

the Marquis of Newcastle. Hearing that a large force under Lord Manchester and Cromwell was marching northward to assist Fairfax, Charles sent Prince Rupert in haste to the relief of the city. At his approach the Parliamentary generals raised the siege and awaited attack. Rupert, by a roundabout march, made his way into York, and then, declaring that he had positive orders from the king to fight, he proceeded, against Newcastle's wishes, to attack the enemy.

On the field of Marston Moor the two armies faced each other. The battle began late in the evening of July 2, 1644. Rupert made a dashing charge against Cromwell's horse on the left wing of the Parliamentary army, and after a slight success was driven back, his troops totally routed. Elsewhere in the field the Royalists had been successful, but they hurried off too soon in search of plunder. Cromwell, on the contrary, had his men well in hand, and was waiting, cool and collected, to see how the battle was going. Hearing of what had happened on the right, he led his men to meet the disorderly cavaliers as they returned from plundering, and inflicted on them a defeat that crushed the royal cause in the north.

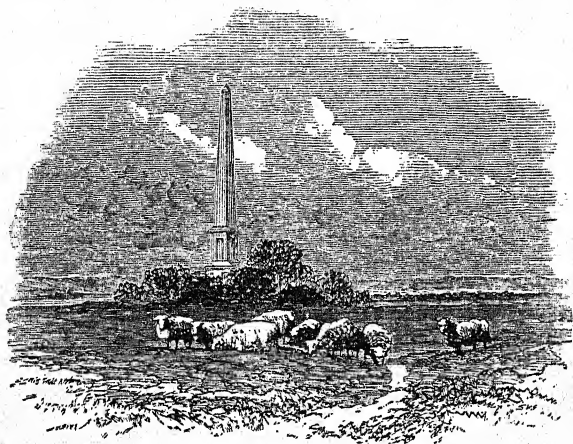
Prince Rupert, admiring the splendid generalship of Cromwell, gave him the nickname "Ironsides", a name which was soon transferred to his men. Cromwell's "Ironsides", who won Marston Moor, never knew defeat, and ere long won admiration from the whole world.

9. THE GREAT REBELLION.—IV. OLIVER CROMWELL.—II.

The battle of Marston Moor proved that Cromwell was the man to finish the war. There were dissensions among the Parliamentary party which needed a strong hand. The majority of the members of the Commons were Presbyterians, just as eager to compel the nation to be Presbyterian as Laud had been to enforce his system. But there was growing up a strong party of Independents, who thought that each congregation of worshippers should be free to choose whatever modes of worship and discipline it pleased, and who insisted on toleration for all except Roman Catholics. The Presbyterians, believing that they could bring Charles to accept their views, did not wish to beat him too thoroughly in the war; the Independents, with whom Cromwell entirely agreed, thought that there was no chance of honourable peace and good government until the king was utterly crushed.

Cromwell therefore carried through Parliament a measure by which the Presbyterian officers in the army were largely replaced by Independents. Fairfax was made commander-in-chief, and Cromwell held the post of lieutenant-general, with command of the cavalry. The army was reorganized after the pattern of Cromwell's Ironsides, and was known as the *New Model*. At the same time, the Independents agreed that for the present Presbyterianism should be established, and one of the first results of this victory of Puritanism was the execution of Archbishop Laud, who had lain in prison for more than four years. He was condemned by act of attainder, and his execution was a cruel and useless act of tyranny on the part of the Parliament.

The New Model had to bear the brunt of the war without the aid of the Scots, who had been drawn towards Scotland by news of the victories of the Marquis of Montrose, who had raised the Highlands in support of Charles. At Naseby, a village in Northamptonshire, the king was utterly routed on June 14, 1645. Rupert on the right wing was successful against the cavalry of the



Naseby Battle-field

Parliament, and galloped off to plunder. When he returned, he found that Cromwell had totally defeated the king's army, and had captured all his guns, baggage, and private papers. These last, when examined, showed that Charles had been seeking aid not only from the Irish Catholics, but also from France and Spain. This discovery damaged his cause even more than his defeat.

Several months were passed in the reduction of castles and towns that still held out for the king, who could not raise another army to take the field. In May, 1646,

he gave himself up to the Scots at Newark, hoping that a quarrel between Presbyterians and Independents would give him a chance to strike again. The Presbyterian majority of Parliament offered terms to Charles on which they would restore him to his throne: namely, that he should give up to them the control of the militia for twenty years, should take the Covenant, and support Presbyterianism. Charles neither accepted nor refused these terms; for six months he simply played with the subject, still hoping that his enemies would fall out. At length, tired out by his shilly-shallying, the Scots gave him up to the Parliament, and returned to their own country, after their expenses had been paid according to previous agreement. Charles was lodged at Holmby House in Northamptonshire, in charge of Commissioners of the Parliament.

The Presbyterians now wished to disband the army, but the army refused to be disbanded until religious liberty was assured, and until the soldiers had received their arrears of pay, which the Parliament seemed unwilling to grant. When it was known that Charles had at last accepted in great part the proposals of Parliament, which would involve the suppression of the Independents, an officer named Joyce was sent with a company of horse to seize him. He was brought by stages to Hampton Court, while the army took possession of London, and by a show of force excluded from Parliament the principal leaders of the Presbyterian party. Negotiations between the army and the king again fell through, and one evening Charles escaped from Hampton Court, and took refuge in the Isle of Wight.

While there, he made a secret treaty with the Scots, agreeing to establish Presbyterianism and to put down

the Independents and other sects. A Scottish army prepared to invade England on his behalf, and Royalist risings took place in many parts of the country. The English army was enraged at the king's trickery, and determined that, after beating the enemy, it would bring to trial "Charles Stuart, that man of blood", for plunging the country again into the horrors of civil war.

Cromwell won a great victory over Scots and Royalists at Preston in August, 1648. Meanwhile the Presbyterian members had returned, and were trying to make peace with the king. Declaring for a reconciliation with him, they were one morning kept forcibly out of the House by Colonel Pride and his soldiers. The rest of the members, fifty-three in all, known in mockery as the *Rump*, appointed a High Court of Justice for the trial of the king. The Lords refused to have any part in this act, and the greater part of the nation saw its illegality; but the army was all-powerful, and effective resistance was hopeless.

The trial took place—if trial it could be called when judgment was decided on beforehand. Not one-half of the appointed members of the court attended. Charles denied their right to try him, and refused to plead. He was found guilty on January 27, 1649, and three days later he paid the penalty on the scaffold for the mistakes and follies of his twenty-four years of misgovernment. The greater part of the nation was shocked and horrified at the murder of the king. The purity of his private life, and his fearlessness and dignity in the closing scene, moved men to pity, and some forgot that a more reasonable spirit and a true sense of honour would have saved him from his miserable end.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

(1649-1660.)

1. CROMWELL BECOMES PROTECTOR.

The tyrant king was dead: his place was taken by a tyrant army. Anxious as the army leaders were to set up a form of government in which the nation would, by its representatives, have supreme power, they knew that the time for such a change was not yet come. Besides, they dared not put away power out of their own hands, for the greater part of the nation was against them.

England was now styled a Commonwealth, and the chief power was placed in the hands of a Council of forty-one members, among whom were the chief officers of the army. The House of Lords had already been abolished, and Parliament consisted of a remnant of some sixty members. The new government soon had its hands full. A mutiny broke out in the army, which Cromwell had no sooner put down than he had to start for Ireland, to save the country from falling into the hands of a combined force of Royalists and Irish Roman Catholics. He reached Dublin in August, 1649, and for six months remained in the country, storming towns and massacring the defenders, winning such hatred that among the Irish "the curse of Cromwell on you!" is to this day the most awful imprecation.

In March, 1650, Cromwell was hastily recalled, to defend the Commonwealth at home. The late king's eldest son Charles, a young man of twenty, landed in Scotland, and secured the support of the Scots by taking the Covenant and promising to maintain Presbyterianism in both England and Scotland. Cromwell hastened north-

ward to crush the army which David Leslie, a skilful general who had won experience and fame in the wars of continental Europe, commanded for the king. Compelled by scarcity of provisions to retreat from before Edinburgh, Cromwell fell back on Dunbar, where the Scots army took up a secure position on a line of hills and occupied the pass that was the only road to England. Thus Cromwell's retreat was cut off, and he was placed in great danger. On the afternoon of September 2, however, Leslie was persuaded against his better judgment to move part of his army down the hill towards the sea, intending to attack the English. Cromwell saw the mistake; "The Lord has delivered them into our hands!" he cried, and at sunrise next morning he won a brilliant victory.

Though Edinburgh and a large part of Scotland soon submitted to Cromwell, Charles was not yet beaten. Escaping with his army into England, he reached Worcester, hoping that the English Royalists would flock to him in large numbers. He was disappointed; his presence excited no enthusiasm, and on September 3, 1651, the anniversary of Dunbar, Cromwell gave the final blow to the royal cause in the great battle of Worcester. Charles escaped to France, and made no further attempt to gain his kingdom by force of arms.

Meanwhile the difficulties of the government were increasing. There was a general wish that a new Parliament should be elected, but the existing Parliament feared that the nation might elect members in favour of the monarchy and opposed to Puritanism. The members therefore proposed to retain their seats, and to claim the right of rejecting any of the new members to whom they objected. This proposal naturally caused great dissatisfaction; Cromwell was against it, and was

trying to arrange another plan when word was brought him that the members, contrary to an understanding with him, were proceeding with their bill. Hastening to the House with a company of soldiers, he listened at first to the debate. Presently he rose and began to speak, quietly and persuasively until interruptions caused him to flash out in angry rebuke of the members. At last, calling in his soldiers, he turned the members out, had the mace removed from the table, locked the doors, and put the key in his pocket. This was a high-handed action which gave much offence, and caused a serious breach between the army and the friends of parliamentary government.

Cromwell and the army leaders then called together an assembly of 140 members, selected as earnest, God-fearing men by the Independent congregations. This got the derisive nickname of Barebone's Parliament, from Praise-God Barbon or Barebone, one of the members for London. The new assembly, while honest and sincere, had so little genius for government that it soon excited ridicule and opposition. Some of its proposals were admirable, the most were simply unpractical and premature. After existing for six months, the Assembly resigned its powers.

Thereupon the army leaders drew up what was called an *Instrument of Government*, which appointed Cromwell Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, to rule with the assistance of a Council, and by the advice of a Parliament of one House. Parliament was to meet once a year, and could not be dissolved until it had sat for five months. It was to have the sole power of levying taxes and granting supplies, and the Protector was bound to ask its assent to any ordinances he might issue when the House was not sitting. Parliament was also to have



Cromwell dissolving the Long Parliament. — From the painting by Benjamin West.

the power of making laws without the consent of the Protector.

Thus Cromwell—"our chief of men", as Milton called him—became, in 1654, head of the Commonwealth of England. His elevation raised many enemies against him, and from that time plots were constantly being formed against his life. But the nation at large accepted him as a strong, earnest, and unselfish ruler, who would maintain peace and uphold the honour of his country.

2. CROMWELL'S DIFFICULTIES.

Cromwell's first Parliament, which included members from Scotland and Ireland, met on September 3, 1654. Immediately difficulties arose. The Instrument of Government was the work of the army, and Parliament insisted that the plan of government should be drawn up by itself. This Cromwell could not agree to, for he believed it would lead to insecurity and religious intolerance. As the members again and again sought to lessen his powers, he dissolved Parliament at the earliest possible moment.

A Royalist rising at Salisbury, under a gentleman named Penruddock, was speedily crushed, and then Cromwell devised a new system of government. He divided the country into eleven districts, over each of which he placed a trustworthy major-general as governor, meeting expenses by a tax upon the Royalist gentry. The country was thus under military rule, but the major-generals used their powers with wisdom and moderation, and the plan worked well. Great irritation was caused, however, by the continued suppression of the Book of Common Prayer, which many of the people sincerely loved.

Though Cromwell could thus rule without a Parliament, he was most unwilling to do so. To obtain sanction for taxes needed to meet the expenses of a war with Spain, he called his second parliament in 1656. Money was willingly voted, and the major-generals were withdrawn from their districts. Then a new scheme of government was drawn up, by which a second house of parliament (a kind of House of Lords) was formed, and Cromwell was allowed to name his successor. The Parliament went even further, and offered him, in the *Petition and Advice*, the title of king, which he wisely declined.

The new plan brought only new trouble. The upper house consisted mainly of those who had been Cromwell's chief supporters in the Commons, and to the lower house there now returned some hundred members whom Cromwell had before excluded as his opponents. The Commons refused to acknowledge the upper house, and finding that agreement was impossible, the Protector sadly dissolved Parliament.

Less than two years later he died. Hard work and anxiety had weakened his frame; long watching by the death-bed of his favourite daughter, and distress at her death, shattered his brave spirit. On September 3—the day of his most splendid victories—the great Protector passed away.

Oliver Cromwell was one of our very greatest rulers. No less pure in private life than Charles I., he had a strength of soul, a directness of purpose, and a sterling honesty which King Charles utterly lacked. While in belief and conduct a Puritan, he had little of the sour severity and bigoted intolerance which marked the extremists of his party. Most tender and considerate in his family relations, he was more tolerant in religious

matters than most of his associates, and had no patience with those who would have liked to crush out all sects but their own. While anxious to rule in accordance with parliamentary forms, he was driven by circumstances to rely on the power of his devoted army; indeed, his whole government was founded on illegality. But it must be remembered that while Charles I. was mainly concerned to preserve his personal authority, placing himself above the nation, Cromwell sought first the good of the nation, regarding himself only as an "unworthy instrument" called by God to guide the people through a time of difficulty and danger. Cromwell was a tyrant, but a tyrant who was beloved by many, and respected by all; a tyrant who, "guided by faith and matchless fortitude", gave England peace and prosperity at home, and abroad stood firm for the great cause of Freedom, and raised the great name of England high in the estimation of the world.

3. FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

The high place in the estimation of Europe which England took during the Commonwealth forms a striking contrast to her insignificance under the first two Stuarts. Some of the glorious exploits of Elizabeth's reign were repeated; the name of Blake shines between the names of Drake and Nelson on the roll of England's naval heroes; English arms were respected as they had not been respected since Agincourt.

In the early days of the Commonwealth, war had broken out with the Dutch. The English and Dutch were rivals in the East Indies, where trading factories had been established. The Dutch had been first in the

field, and felt sore at what they regarded as intrusion by the English. An additional cause of irritation was the *Navigation Act*, passed in 1651, an act which forbade goods to be brought into England except by English ships, or by ships of the countries from which the goods came. Partly designed to bring about the improvement of the English navy, this act hit at the Dutch carrying-trade, which had flourished because they had excellent ships and charged low rates. A naval war ensued in which the English admirals were pitted against ad-



Admiral Blake.

mirals of great skill and daring. In command of the English fleet was Robert Blake, born at Bridgewater in 1599. During the Civil War he had fought for the Parliament as a foot-soldier, and on the establishment of the Commonwealth, being placed in charge of the fleet, he succeeded in sweeping from the seas a Royalist fleet which Prince Rupert commanded.

The Dutch war lasted for two years. Successes were won on both sides, but at length the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, was killed, and his fleet completely routed. The honour of this victory belongs not to Blake, who was ill

on shore at the time, but to George Monk, who played a still more important part in after years. Peace was made, much to the advantage of England.

War then broke out with Spain. Cromwell had demanded that Englishmen should be free to trade with the Spanish colonies in America, and should not be subject on Spanish territory to the cruel treatment of the Inquisition. The Spanish ambassador declared that he might as well ask for both the King of Spain's eyes. The English fleet was accordingly sent to capture San Domingo, which proved too strong; but Jamaica, the largest and richest of the West Indian Islands, was seized by the English, and remains ours to the present day. Blake meanwhile had sailed another fleet to the Mediterranean, partly to put down the Barbary pirates, who were the pest of the seas, and partly to prepare for an attack on the Plate fleet, which annually brought the wealth of the American mines to Spain. He swept into Tunis harbour, destroyed the forts, and burnt nine Tunisian war-ships before the eyes of the Bey (1655).

Then he sailed into the Atlantic in search of the treasure fleet. After waiting a long time in vain for its arrival, he returned to England for the winter, but went to sea again in the spring of 1656. He lay patiently at Cadiz, and at last, in September, nine large Spanish vessels came in sight, and were immediately attacked by Captain Stayner with only three ships. Six of the nine were taken or destroyed, and gold and silver to an immense value was soon lodged in the Tower of London.

Next year Blake went to Santa Cruz in search of sixteen galleons which he had heard were there. Under a heavy fire he dashed into the harbour, captured every one of the ships, burnt them because his crews were not large

enough to man them, and ran out again with his own fleet safe and sound. England rang with the fame of this exploit; a public thanksgiving was ordered, and people were ready to give the most enthusiastic welcome to the admiral on his return. He returned, only to die on board ship at the very entrance of Plymouth Sound. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Blake's fame depends on his spotless character and his single-minded devotion to duty, as well as on his brilliant deeds. It is believed that he did not agree with Cromwell's system of government, but he did his duty nevertheless for the honour of England. "It is not for us to meddle with state matters," he once said, "but to hinder foreigners from fooling us."

In the last years of Cromwell, France sought an alliance with him against Spain. He was at first prevented from agreeing to join with France by a terrible massacre in Piedmont, where the Duke of Savoy had allowed his soldiers to butcher his Protestant subjects in cold blood, even women and children being dashed down the Alpine rocks. Cromwell demanded security and liberty of worship for the Protestants before he would assist France, and Mazarin, the great French cardinal and statesman, was glad to enforce these terms on Savoy.

Then a force of 6000 English soldiers was sent to the Low Countries to take part in the war, the object of which was to capture from the Spaniards some important towns on the French frontier. The victory of the Dunes (June, 1658) was won mainly by the English veterans, whose valour and perfect discipline drew the warmest praise from the famous French marshal Turenne. In acknowledgment of their services, Dunkirk, one of the captured towns, was presented to the English government.

4. END OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

On the death of Oliver Cromwell, his eldest surviving son, Richard, was named Protector. Richard was a good and well-disposed man, who knew how to maintain dignity on state occasions, and whose excellent speeches showed that he possessed much intelligence and prudence. But he lacked his father's force and energy. He had the rather expensive tastes of a country gentleman, and felt no desire to govern. His greatness, he is reported to have said, was a burden to him. Such a man was bound to fail in the difficult and insecure position in which he was placed.

Oliver had held sway by means of the army: Richard was almost unknown to it; the soldiers would have preferred "honest George Monk" to "Dick Cromwell". Yet, having to choose between the army and the parliament, he decided to rely on the army, and dissolved parliament. The result was that there was no money for carrying on the government, and, acting under the advice of General Lambert, Richard agreed to the recall of the Rump. By agreement between army and parliament, Richard's power was soon brought to an end; the public debts he had incurred during his short protectorate were paid; and he retired with the utmost satisfaction, "not a penny the richer for being the son of his father". He soon crossed to France, and remained abroad for twenty years. Then he returned to England, and died at Cheshunt in 1712 at the age of eighty-six.

Richard gone, the parliament and the army quarrelled, and presently Lambert, aping the great Oliver, went down to the House and expelled the members. The nation was by this time thoroughly tired of the disturb-



Embarkation of Charles II. at Scheveningen in the Netherlands.

ances and the unsettled government. People were asking whether the rule of a king were not better than the despotism of an army. Meanwhile, in Scotland there was a calm, silent, clear-sighted soldier intently watching affairs in London. George Monk, who had fought both for king and parliament, was in charge of the army in Scotland. Seeing that the moment had come for action, he set out for London, silent as to his intentions, though the people of the towns through which he passed cheered him in the belief that he meant to restore the king.

Reaching London on February 3, 1660, he was received with joy, which was redoubled when he declared for a free parliament. The surviving members of the parliament of 1640 met, appointed Monk captain-general, sent Lambert to the Tower, arranged for the election of a *Convention*, and then dissolved. So ended the famous Long Parliament. The Convention then elected was the first assembly since 1640 which could be considered really to represent the country.

Prince Charles was at once called from Holland, where he was staying. In the *Declaration of Breda* he had offered a pardon to all who had been engaged in the Great Rebellion, except those whom parliament should name; and he had agreed that no one should suffer for his religious opinions so long as he remained a peaceable citizen. The Parliament did not care to exact strict pledges. The people were ready to accept a king on almost any terms, for they were tired of the stern oppression of the Puritans. They wanted back their theatres, their May-day jollities, their short sermons and happy Sundays. They received their king with open arms, and when Charles reached London on his birthday (May 29) the enthusiasm was so great that, turning to one of his companions, he remarked

with a smile that it must surely have been his own fault that he had not come before.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES THE SECOND.

(1660-1685.)

1. THE MINISTRY OF CLARENDON.

Charles II. was a far abler man than his father, but proved as much lower in personal character as he was higher in mental qualities. He was good-tempered, genial in manner, and full of tact; but he was deceitful and utterly selfish, and had a rooted dislike to taking trouble. He was determined to keep as much power as he could without endangering his throne, and he cleverly managed that the blame of the disgraceful acts which marked his policy should fall chiefly on his ministers. By his own evil life he set a bad example to his subjects, and his court was filled with men and women whose deeds shocked the greater part of the nation.

It was only natural that, after the severity of the Puritan rule, men should go too far in the opposite direction. During the Commonwealth amusements had been suppressed: they were now revived, and took a coarse tone from the manners of the court. The Church of England had been abolished: now it was restored, and churchmen inflicted on the Puritans great hardships in return for what they had themselves suffered.

For the first seven years of his reign Charles was advised by Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, a Royalist of high character who had been one of his father's counsellors. He took no part in the evil and riotous life of the court; indeed, he earned Charles's dislike by advising

him to amend his ways. Clarendon, as a devoted churchman, was foremost in restoring the Church to the position it had held in Laud's time. In 1661 the *Corporation Act* was passed, requiring all municipal officers to renounce the Covenant and take the oath of allegiance

and non-resistance, and ordaining that none but members of the Church should in future hold office.



Charles II.

Next year the *Act of Uniformity* was passed, requiring all clergymen to renounce the Covenant, to accept, by a certain date, everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer, and to

receive episcopal ordination. The clergymen appointed during the Commonwealth were Presbyterians and Independents, who could not conscientiously agree to this; so that 2000 clergymen resigned their livings and left the Church, thus becoming *Dissenters*.

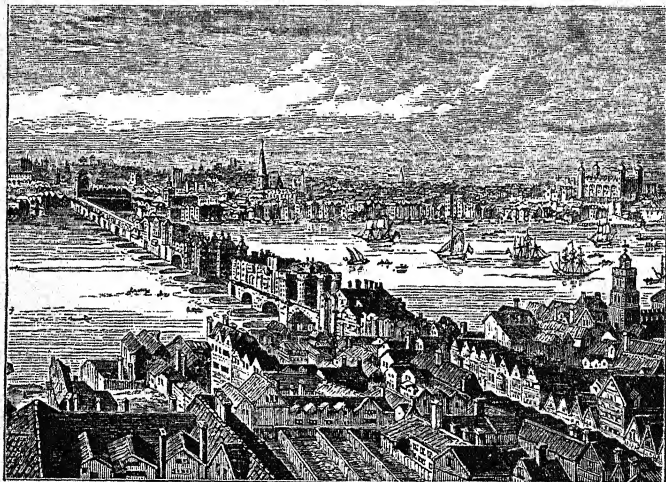
Many of these clergymen formed congregations of people who agreed with them, and began to conduct worship in their own way. In 1664 the *Conventicle Act* was passed to put a stop to this. It inflicted very

heavy punishments on those who were convicted of attending these meetings for worship. Finally, in 1665 the *Five Mile Act* was passed, forbidding any dissenting minister to come within five miles of any corporate town, or to act as a schoolmaster, unless he would take the oath of non-resistance, and promise never to attempt any alteration in the government of Church or State. These four acts are often known as the Clarendon Code. The members of the Cavalier Parliament which passed them did so, not so much from dislike of the dissenters' religious opinions, as because they feared that the Puritans might rise again to power in the State.

In 1665 war broke out with the Dutch, the chief cause of which was the commercial rivalry between the two nations. The English fleet under James, Duke of York, the king's brother, gained a victory over the Dutch at Lowestoft. Meanwhile London was suffering from the ravages of the Plague, a mysterious disease which festered in the city, and within a few months carried off nearly 100,000 people. The richer people fled; trade ceased, and grass grew in the streets: the dead were cast like animals into pits. Thieves and ruffians roamed the deserted streets; and, of the great officers of the government, only General Monk, now Duke of Albemarle, remained to keep order.

The Dutch war still continued, the English fleet being now commanded by Prince Rupert. A furious battle, lasting four days, was fought off the coast of Kent between Albemarle and Rupert on the English side and De Ruyter on the Dutch. Neither side gained the victory, and both fleets suffered terrible damage. A month later, the English burnt a Dutch town on the Zuyder Zee, and destroyed a large fleet of merchant vessels.

A new misfortune then fell on London. The Great Fire broke out on September 2, 1666, and raged for three days, during which St. Paul's Cathedral, 89 churches, many fine buildings, and 13,000 houses were destroyed. A panic occurred, in which the fire was variously ascribed



London Bridge before the Great Fire.

to the Dutch, the Jews, the Roman Catholics, and others. In the following years disaster reached its climax. Negotiations were proceeding for a peace with the Dutch, and Charles, too hastily concluding that his terms would be accepted, took for his own purposes a large sum of money voted by Parliament for the maintenance of the fleet. The ships returned from sea; but a Dutch fleet quickly appeared, sailed up the Medway, and, in spite of all the efforts of Albemarle, burned several English ships, and made a prize of the *Royal Charles*.

Englishmen felt this as a national disgrace, and in their indignation put on Clarendon the blame really due to the selfish and treacherous king. A few years before, Clarendon had displeased them by selling Dunkirk to the French king, and the recent disasters had made him thoroughly unpopular. Charles was glad of the excuse to get rid of him; so he was dismissed from office and impeached, and, without waiting for his trial, he took the king's advice and fled to France. There he wrote his *History of the Great Rebellion*.

2. CHARLES THE PENSIONER OF FRANCE.

After Clarendon's fall, affairs were for a time in the hands of five ministers, the initials of whose surnames formed the word "Cabal". The most able of these was Anthony Ashley Cooper, afterwards first Earl of Shaftesbury.

At this time the King of France was Louis XIV., a man of great cunning and of vast ambition. He was anxious to add the Netherlands to his dominions, and had already captured several towns. To prevent the full achievement of his designs, an alliance was concluded between Holland, Sweden, and England, which succeeded in gaining from Louis, at the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, the promise to abstain from further conquest.

But Charles was not sincere in this alliance with Protestant countries. Secretly a Roman Catholic, he wished to set up his religion in England; not from any truly religious motive, but because he thought that the Catholic church would help him to be an absolute king. He therefore made a secret treaty with Louis, in which he agreed to acknowledge himself a Catholic at a favour-

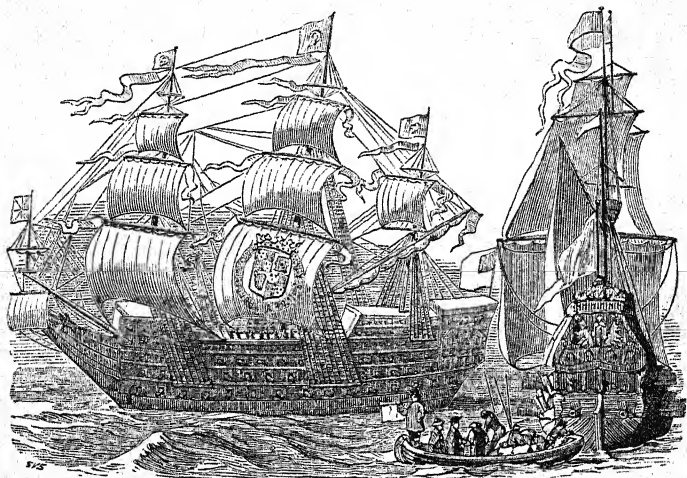
able opportunity, and to send English troops to aid Louis in a new war with the Dutch. Louis on his side agreed to support Charles with money and troops if the nation opposed him when he declared himself a Catholic, and promised him £230,000 a year while the war lasted.

Charles was always wanting money, to spend on his pleasures. He used for his own purposes money voted for the defences of the country, and in 1672 he got money by a shameful act of dishonesty. The goldsmiths, who were also the bankers of that time, were accustomed to lend to the government at a high interest the money confided to them by their clients. There was £1,300,000 in the exchequer, and this sum was seized by the king, who refused to repay it, at the same time reducing the interest to about half the former rate. This *Stop of the Exchequer* ruined many of the goldsmiths, and made people hate Clifford, the member of the Cabal who had suggested it.

A little later Charles, to prepare the way for his confession of Roman Catholicism, allowed his brother James, the heir to the throne, to be received into the Roman Catholic church, and then issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, giving complete liberty of worship to Catholics and Dissenters alike. This measure, which in these days seems absolutely just and wise, caused great irritation, for the majority of the nation looked with disfavour on both Catholics and Dissenters, and suspected the king's motives, as there was good reason to do.

By this time Louis XIV. had begun his war with the Dutch, and in accordance with the secret treaty of Dover Charles fought the Dutch on sea, and sent a force to assist the French on land. The French were successful, but the Dutch were determined to save their country,

and by the advice of their Grand Pensionary, John de Witt, cut the dykes that protected their low-lying land from the sea, and thus stopped Louis' progress. De Witt was shortly afterwards murdered, and his place at the head of the nation was taken by William of Orange,



Ships of the time of Charles II.

who became Stadtholder, and waged a lifelong war against his country's great enemy Louis.

Parliament, which had not met for nearly two years, was called by Charles in February, 1673, to vote more money. It at once requested him to withdraw the Declaration of Indulgence, and proceeded to pass the *Test Act*, which required that all who held office under the crown should be members of the Church of England. Charles could get no money until he had given his assent. The Test Act broke up the Cabal ministry, two members of which were Roman Catholics; and James, Duke of

York, had to resign his position as lord high admiral. Shaftesbury, who had found out the terms of the secret Treaty of Dover, supported the new act, and being dismissed by Charles, at once went into opposition against him, leading what was called the "country" party, the king's supporters being known as the "court" party.

The king's new minister was the Earl of Danby, a clever man, who, to gain the support of Parliament, made large use of bribes. He concluded peace with the Dutch, and helped to bring about a marriage between William of Orange and Mary, the elder daughter of James, and the niece of Charles. This marriage of a possible queen of England with a Protestant was very popular in England.

Parliament had had so good reason to dislike the king that it was not willing to grant supplies. Louis therefore gave Charles a pension of £100,000 a year, so that he might be independent of his subjects. It was suspected that he was a Roman Catholic, and men feared that with Louis' aid he would endeavour to set up his religion in England. In the midst of the general suspicion, a degraded wretch named Titus Oates came forward with a story of a Popish plot to kill the king and establish a Catholic government. Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey, the magistrate to whom he told his tale, was soon afterwards found dead in a field near Primrose Hill, and it was believed that he had been murdered by the Catholics to prevent his taking action. There was intense excitement; Oates' story, a tissue of lies, was believed, and several innocent Catholics lost their lives. All the old hatred of the Catholics revived, and a law was passed which prevented any Catholic from becoming a member of either house of Parliament.

3. THE END OF THE REIGN.

Meanwhile, the pension arrangement between Louis and Charles had become known to Parliament. Letters, revealing Danby's part in it, were brought before the Commons, with the result that he was at once impeached. To save him, and at the same time to prevent the disclosure of other unpleasant secrets, Charles dissolved Parliament. In the new House of Commons, the first that had been elected for seventeen years, a very large number of the members took sides with Shaftesbury against the king. The impeachment of Danby was revived, and his plea that he had a full pardon from the king was not allowed; but the Commons agreed to drop proceedings against him if he were dismissed from office.

Knowing that James, Duke of York, was a Catholic, and fearing that, when he became king, he would try to destroy the Protestant religion in England, the Commons brought in an *Exclusion Bill*, to prevent him from succeeding his brother. Charles soon dissolved Parliament, but not before it had passed Shaftesbury's famous *Habeas Corpus Act*, which provides that a prisoner committed for trial may require a judge to issue a writ ordering the jailer to produce him in court, and that a prisoner must be tried at the first assizes after his committal, unless unavoidable circumstances prevent. Thus no man can be kept in prison at the mere command of the king and without having an open trial.

In the new Parliament, Shaftesbury again brought in the *Exclusion Bill*, intending that the king's successor should be the Duke of Monmouth, his natural son. The bill passed through the Commons, but was defeated in the

Lords owing to the powerful opposition of the Marquis of Halifax, a very able man, who accepted from his enemies the derisive name of "Trimmer", comparing himself to a man who shifts his position in a boat in order to "trim" it or keep it on even keel. About this time the names Whig and Tory first came into use, the Tories being the supporters of the king, while the Whigs were the "country" party or opposition.

Another Parliament met at Oxford in 1681, to which Shaftesbury and his party came armed. This was a mistaken move, for the people, fearing another civil war, began to side with Charles, though they had no longing for a "Popish" king. Shaftesbury's wish was that Monmouth should be acknowledged heir to the throne, which being unjust to James's daughters, who were Protestants, greatly weakened his influence. He was, however, supported by the Commons, whereupon Charles again dissolved Parliament. It was then intended to bring Shaftesbury to trial for plotting treason with Monmouth, but the earl fled to Holland in January, 1683, where in a few months he died.

In the same year, it was discovered that a plot had been formed to murder Charles and James at Rye House, in Hertfordshire, as they returned from the Newmarket races. The plot failed, and involved in its failure some members of Shaftesbury's party who, though not actually concerned in it, were known to be bitterly indignant with the king's government. The chief victims were the Earl of Essex, Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, and John Hampden, grandson of the ship-money hero and patriot. All were high-minded and patriotic men, and their trial, before a brutal judge named Jeffreys, was a mockery. Russell and Sidney were beheaded,

Essex killed himself in prison, and Hampden was fined the enormous sum of £40,000.

Charles was now more powerful than he had been at any time during his reign, but less than two years later he was dead. In his last hours he confessed himself a Roman Catholic, and on his death-bed, commending a favourite of his to the care of his brother, and apologizing for taking so long to die, showed himself the same witty, generous, frivolous man he had always been.

THE REIGN OF JAMES THE SECOND.

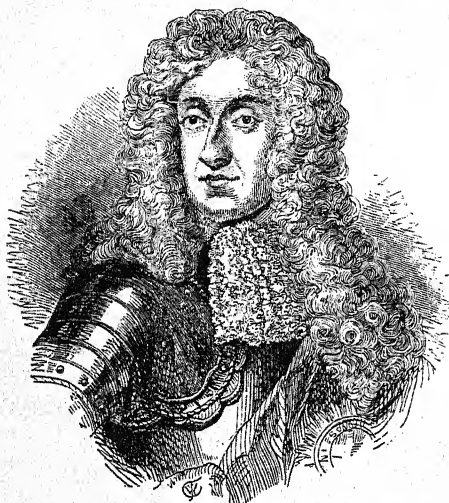
(1685-1689.)

1. MONMOUTH'S REBELLION.—THE DISPENSING POWER.

Charles was succeeded by his brother James, who was as industrious as his predecessor had been indolent. He had some business capacity, had proved himself, as lord high admiral, a capable seaman and commander, and was reputed to be a man of his word. He had been a loyal subject to Charles, and though selfish and immoral, was a man of strong family affections, and a staunch friend to those who had once gained his confidence. But he was narrow in intellect and lacking in imagination, and was just as obstinate, and as unable to see any honesty in his opponents, as his unhappy father, Charles I., had been. He was an ardent Roman Catholic, and set before him as his chief aim the restoration of liberty of worship to his fellow Catholics. Unluckily, in attempting to carry out his purpose, which was right enough in itself, he not only broke the laws of England without

remorse, but went in direct opposition to the public opinion of his time. This meant ruin, and it is to James's credit that he clung to his religion even when ruin stared him in the face.

The first year of his reign was marked by an insurrection, brought to an end by the last real battle fought on



James II.

English soil. Accompanied by a few friends, the Duke of Monmouth landed in Dorsetshire, declaring that he had come as the champion of the Protestant religion, to wrest the crown from his uncle James. He was speedily joined by crowds of peasants and of the poorer citizens, but men of

the better classes held aloof. A royal army was at once sent against him, and at Sedgemoor, early in the morning of July 6, 1685, "King Monmouth's" ill-armed horde of rustics was routed by King James's troops, chiefly through the skill of a young captain named John Churchill, who did the greater part of the work while his general, Lord Feversham, was snoring in bed. Monmouth fled, and some days later was captured in the New Forest. He was taken to London, where his piteous appeal for mercy

was disregarded by James, and he suffered the legal penalty of his treason.

His supporters in the west of England suffered barbarous cruelties at the hands of Colonel Kirke and Chief-justice Jeffreys. More than three hundred were hanged, eight hundred were shipped off as slaves to the West Indies, and many more were flogged, imprisoned, and fined. No great trouble was taken to discover whether the victims were guilty or innocent; and one lady was beheaded at Winchester on the trumpery charge, true or false, of giving some rebels a night's lodging.

It will be remembered that in the previous reign the Test Act had been passed, which excluded Roman Catholics from offices under the crown. James, determined to defy this act, made some Catholics officers in the army, announcing that he possessed, as king, the right to dispense with obedience to the law. He had a test case brought before the judges, who, holding their offices at his pleasure, complaisantly decided that persons to whom he had granted dispensations were free from the penalties consequent on a breach of the law. Having got this decision, James went further. He appointed a Roman Catholic to the deanery of Christ Church, Oxford. When the English clergy, in alarm at these appointments, warned their congregations against the teaching of the Catholics, James set up a Court of High Commission to punish them, placing at its head the vicious and brutal Jeffreys, whom he made Lord Chancellor.

Disregarding the murmurs now arising on all sides, the king appointed more Catholics to important posts in the army and the council; he had the Catholic worship celebrated openly in the royal chapel, and formally received a nuncio from the Pope. Becoming bolder with every

successive step, he next issued a *Declaration of Indulgence*, suspending the laws against Catholics and Dissenters.

Turning to the Universities, he deprived of his office the vice-chancellor of Cambridge for refusing to grant a degree to a monk who, as a Catholic, was not eligible; then he ordered the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, to elect to the office of president, at that time vacant, a Catholic named Farmer. The fellows, exercising their legal right, met and elected John Hough, one of their own number. They were summoned before the High Commission Court, which declared Hough's election illegal. James dropped the nomination of Farmer, but ordered the fellows to elect Parker, Bishop of Oxford, who, though not a Catholic, agreed in many points with the king. When they refused, because, since they had already elected Hough, the office was not vacant, James went down to Oxford himself, gave them a violent scolding, and expelled Hough with thirty-nine other members of the college.

2. THE REVOLUTION.

Wishing to obtain parliamentary sanction for his Declaration of Indulgence, James dissolved his first Parliament, which had not met for business for more than eighteen months, and tried to induce the lords-lieutenant of the counties to secure the election of members favourable to him. They were indignant at his request, and almost all of them refused to comply with it. As a result, they lost their positions, and at the same time some of the great lords of the council were dismissed to make room for Catholics. James resolved for the present to do without a Parliament, and on April 22, 1688, issued a second *Declaration of Indulgence*, which

he ordered to be read, on two successive Sundays, in all the churches.

The bishops and the clergy had so often preached the doctrines of divine right and non-resistance that James was unprepared for opposition. But seven of the bishops, headed by Sancroft, Archbishop of Canterbury, drew up a petition, in which they declared, in moderate and loyal terms, that, as the Declaration was certainly illegal, they could not in prudence, honour, or conscience, ask their clergy to read it. When the petition was brought to James, he became very angry. Declaring that it was a "standard of rebellion", and refusing to listen to the bishops' protest that they meant no disloyalty, he roughly dismissed them, saying that he would maintain the dispensing power that God had given him. The same night, printed copies of the petition were hawked about the streets and eagerly bought by the people.

On the next day, when the Declaration was to have been read the first time, hardly a clergyman obeyed the royal order; the few who did obey saw their congregations rise and flock out of church. In his anger James decided to prosecute the bishops for publishing a "false, malicious, and seditious libel". The trial took place in Westminster Hall, and one of the advocates for the bishops, a young lawyer named John Somers (afterwards Lord Chancellor) showed, in a speech that took little more than five minutes to deliver, that their document was neither false, nor malicious, nor seditious, nor a libel. After a discussion that lasted all night the jury unanimously agreed to a verdict of *not guilty*, and the bishops left the court amid the boisterous cheers of the thousands who thronged the Hall and the surrounding streets.

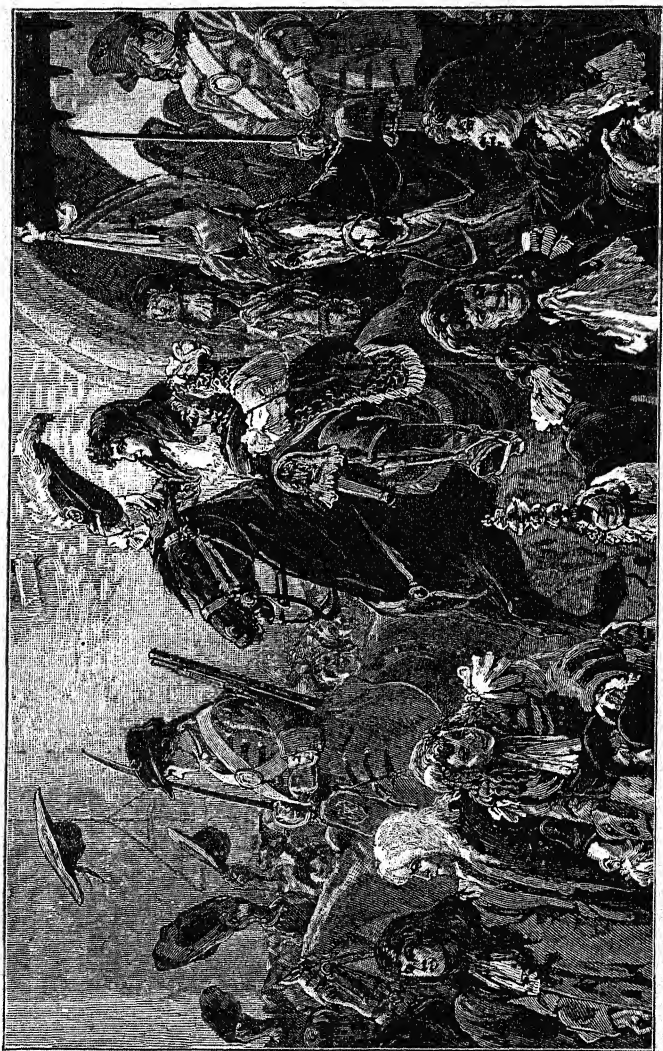
That same night, while the sky was blazing with

fireworks and illuminations in honour of the acquittal of the bishops, Admiral Herbert slipped away to Holland disguised as a common sailor, bearing a letter signed by some of England's greatest men, asking William of Orange to come over and save England from her self-willed, law-breaking king.

Hitherto the nation had patiently borne James's tyranny, because he was getting on in years, and having no son, he would soon be succeeded by his Protestant daughter, Mary, wife of the Prince of Orange. But only two days after the seven bishops had been sent to the Tower, the king's second wife bore him a son. The birth of a male heir, usually the signal for an outburst of joy, filled the nation with rage and despair. When James died they could only expect another Stuart king, a Catholic, a believer in divine right, a tyrant, like his father and grandfather. They could be patient no longer; they would send for the husband of their beloved princess Mary and see what he could do for them.

William agreed to come, and then James in his alarm made concessions one after another, and promised, if the people would give him another chance, to undo all that they complained of. But it was too late. William landed at Torbay on November 5, 1688; James's officers, his friends, his own daughter Anne forsook him, and after a period of doubt, hesitation, and fear, after one vain attempt at flight, the unhappy king followed his wife and child to flight, and never more set foot on English soil.

A Convention, which met on January 22, 1689, declared that James, "having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom...having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, had abdicated the government, and that the



Entry of the Prince of Orange into Exeter after his landing at Torbay, 1688.

throne had thereby become vacant". After much discussion and some disagreement, the crown was offered to William and Mary jointly. On February 13, they became King and Queen of England and Ireland, and a month later a Scottish Convention added Scotland to their dominions.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM AND MARY.

(1689-1702.)

1. IMPORTANCE OF THE REVOLUTION.—SCOTLAND.

The Revolution was an event of the greatest importance in the history of England. It was much more than a change of rulers; it was the dividing line between two systems of government. It gave the death-blow to the theory of the divine right of kings, and substituted that of the popular right of Parliament. From that time the personal part taken in the government by the sovereign has diminished, and the part taken by Parliament has increased, till, in our day, the government is carried on wholly by ministers responsible to Parliament, assisted by permanent officials.

William and Mary owed their title to Parliament, and they had to submit to certain conditions. The Convention drew up a famous document called the *Declaration of Right*—afterwards, when the Convention was declared a Parliament, made into the *Bill of Rights*—in which the "undoubted rights and liberties" of the English nation were once more asserted. The suspending and dispensing powers, the levying of taxes and the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace without the consent of Parliament, were declared illegal. It was declared also that Parliament should be frequently called together;

that the election of members should be conducted free from royal interference; that no Roman Catholic could succeed to the throne; and that if Mary died without children, the crown should descend to her sister Anne and her children, or, if they failed, to any children William might have if he married again.

Though William and Mary were joint sovereigns, it was agreed from the first that William should have the actual power. The new king was a man of feeble frame and poor health, but of dauntless courage



William III.

and high mental power. He was severe and stern, and had none of the geniality that wins strong personal affection; but he was true to the compact under which he accepted the crown, and he guided the nation most skilfully through the difficult circumstances of the time. The leading principle of his life was determined opposition to the aggression of the great French king, Louis XIV. Mary had all those popular qualities which William lacked. She was not clever, but she was handsome, amiable, and devoted to her husband, to whom her tact and good temper were very helpful.

The first acts of the Parliament were just and wise. A *Mutiny Act* was passed, for the better discipline of the army; and as it is necessary for this act to be renewed every year, it gives Parliament complete control over the army. A *Toleration Act* was also passed, giving liberty of worship to Dissenters, though the laws unjustly keeping them and the Catholics out of office and imposing on them other disabilities were not repealed. The parties which had been formed in the two previous reigns, namely the Whigs and the Tories, had both become stronger, and more fixed in their opposition to each other; indeed, the struggle between them grew so fierce that William, despairing of reconciling parties both opposed to himself, at one time thought of returning to Holland and leaving England to its fate.

He had other serious difficulties to face besides this party contest. James II. had fled to France, and it was expected that Louis XIV. would help him to recover his kingdom. Many of William's chief councillors, anxious to secure their position in case of a restoration, were in correspondence with James; and William, though he knew this, did not feel himself strong enough to punish them.

Actual rebellion broke out in Scotland. The Highlanders, under Graham of Claverhouse, rose for James, and defeated General Mackay at the Pass of Killiecrankie. The death of Claverhouse, however, in the moment of victory, deprived the rebellion of its moving spirit, and rendered further struggle hopeless.

An event that followed on the rebellion leaves a dark stain on the records of the reign. The Highland chiefs were ordered to take the oath of allegiance before an officer of the government, by the first day of 1692. The chiefs

delayed their submission as long as they could, and one of them, the head of the Macdonalds of Glencoe, by an unlucky mistake took the oath six days late. The Secretary of State for Scotland was Sir John Dalrymple, who, wishing to make an example of the rebels, obtained from William a signed paper, authorizing him to "extirpate that sect of thieves", the Macdonalds.

The order was carried out with a treacherous meanness that covers Dalrymple's name with disgrace. A body of soldiers was quartered among the unsuspecting Macdonalds, and lived among them in outward friendliness for a fortnight. Then, on February 13, 1692, in the darkness of the night, the soldiers fell on their hosts, and began to massacre them. Warned by the noise of their muskets, three-fourths of the clan fled; but thirty-eight persons were killed, and many more died of cold and hunger among the hills. For years the massacre of Glencoe fostered the hatred of the Highlanders for the English government.

2. IRELAND.—FRANCE.

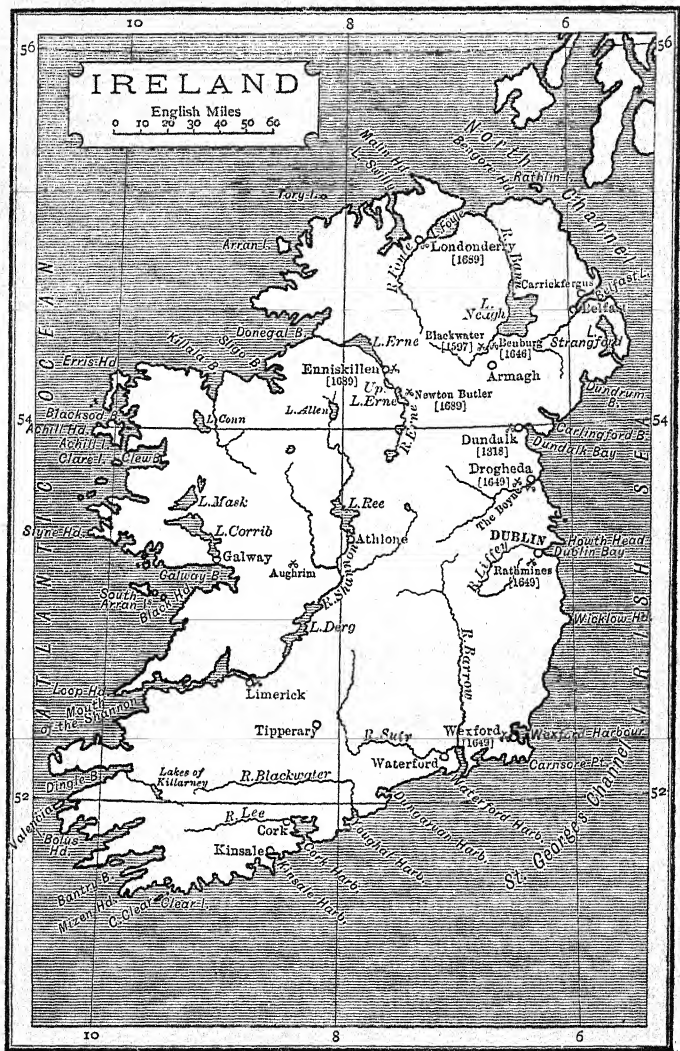
William, like Cromwell, had difficulties to contend with in Ireland. There a great army was raised for James by the Earl of Tyrconnell, and the English and Scotch Protestant colonists were driven from their farms. They took refuge in Londonderry, and for 105 days that town endured the horrors of a siege. In spite of famine, disease, and death, the spirit and determination of the defenders never flagged, a clergyman named Walker keeping up their courage by his stirring sermons and unwearied personal efforts. At length, the town was

relieved by some ships, which broke through the boom thrown by the enemy across the harbour.

On July 1, 1690, the battle of the Boyne was fought, at which William in person gained a great victory over James and his Irish army. To the disgust of some of his principal supporters, James fled from the field, and soon after took ship for France. Other battles were fought, in which William's troops were completely victorious. Among his officers was the John Churchill who had done so much to win the victory of Sedgemoor. The Irish rebellion was speedily crushed, and a large number of the brave Irish soldiers were allowed to enter the French king's employment. Under good discipline and generalship, they did their new master yeoman service as the famous Irish brigade.

The help given to James by Louis led to war with France. The French army was commanded by a most able general, the Duke of Luxembourg, and the English troops were almost always defeated on land. William, good general as he was, was outmatched by Luxembourg, and suffered defeats at Steenkerke in 1692, and at Landen in 1693. But though defeated, he was not routed. The English fought with admirable bravery, and William showed great patience and fortitude under failure. These battles, against the best troops and generals in Europe, taught the English lessons which they turned to good account in the next reign.

On the sea, England was soon triumphant. At the great battle of La Hogue in 1692, Admirals Russell and Rooke totally defeated the French Admiral de Tourville, and burned his transport ships under the very eyes of King James. "See how my brave English fight!" the fallen king is said to have exclaimed. This success was



followed by a great disaster. A fleet of 400 merchant vessels, carrying goods from England to the Mediterranean, fell into a trap cunningly laid by De Tourville; and, though gallantly defended by Admiral Rooke with some English and Dutch war-vessels, nearly 300 of the ships were captured or destroyed. The disaster brought ruin to many London merchants.

The next year, Queen Mary died of smallpox. William felt her loss very keenly. The death of Luxembourg a few days later gave him his first chance of success in the war. He was more than a match for the other French generals, and by September, 1694, he had captured the great fortress of Namur. The war went on for two years longer without any great success on either side; and at length, in 1697, the Peace of Ryswick was signed, by which Louis gave up all the land that he had conquered since 1678, and acknowledged William as King of England. Thus the advantages of the peace were mainly on the side of England.

After Mary's death, some of the Jacobites, as the supporters of James were called, formed plots to assassinate William and bring James back. They failed, and William became more popular than he had been before. He had no children, and the Princess Anne's children had all died. So much depended on his single life that Parliament passed an *Act of Settlement* (1701), which provided that on Anne's death the crown should pass to the nearest Protestant member of the Stuart family, Sophia, electress of Hanover, and grand-daughter of James I. One very important clause of the same act ordained that the judges were to hold office practically for life, and could not be removed unless Parliament asked for their removal. Thus the king was prevented from interfering with the

course of justice, and the judges could do their duty honestly without fear of the king.

A new trouble soon arose with France. The King of Spain, wholly an invalid and half a madman, had no children, and it was doubtful who would succeed him. One of the claimants was the Dauphin of France; but England and the Protestant states of Europe were unwilling to see the great dominions of Spain, both in Europe and in the Colonies, go to swell the power and wealth of France. William was anxious to be ready for war with France, but the Tories, who at that time formed the majority in Parliament, were totally opposed to war. William therefore arranged two *Partition Treaties* in succession, by which the Spanish dominions were to be divided among the various claimants. But when Charles of Spain at last died and left his dominions by will to Philip, the second son of the Dauphin, Louis at once allowed his grandson to accept the bequest, and William's work was all thrown away.

Both Partition Treaties were very unpopular in England, where the people thought that France was too generously treated. But there was no wish to go to war with France, until Louis made a great mistake. James II. died in 1701, and Louis at once acknowledged his son James, generally known as the "Old Pretender", as King of England. This at once roused the English temper. A Whig Parliament was elected and money was eagerly voted for war. William, in the midst of a popularity he had never before enjoyed, seemed to be on the point of striking a deadly blow at his lifelong enemy; but death came suddenly upon him. He was thrown from his horse while riding at Hampton Court, and his collar-bone was broken. To a strong man this accident would have

brought little danger, but to William, with his weakly constitution, it was fatal. He died on March 8, 1702, a great, though not a faultless, soldier, statesman, and king.

3. SOME GREAT FACTS OF THE REIGN.

Among the statesmen who served William, a high place belongs to Charles Montagu, afterwards Earl of Halifax. He was the first of the great financiers of modern England. As Chancellor of the Exchequer he in 1693 took the foremost part in the establishment of the *National Debt*. Previous kings had borrowed money, and previous parliaments had paid the kings' debts; but William's long French war involved such enormous expense that it was difficult for the king to borrow, and impossible to raise the necessary money entirely by taxation. Montagu therefore proposed that wealthy men should lend money to the government, on the security of the whole nation, being assured of receiving regular interest until the loan was repaid. The scheme was successful; and besides pleasing the wealthy men, it helped to give the government strength, because it gave men a new interest in maintaining an orderly government.

Next year a Scotsman named William Paterson, with the assistance of Montagu and others, founded the *Bank of England*. Previously the city goldsmiths had been the only bankers. Now, however, a number of rich men who had lent money to the government were allowed by charter to receive and to lend money at interest. Thus people who wanted to hoard or to increase their money could entrust it to the bank, feeling sure that the bank's connection with the State would prevent it from failing.

To Montagu was due another good thing, the improvement of the silver coinage. In former years the coins had been rough in shape, and were constantly diminished in value by clipping. Under Charles II. a mill had been set up in the Tower of London, which produced better coins, exactly round, equal in size, weight, and thickness, and with a "milled" edge, which would easily show if clipping had been attempted. But nobody would part with the new coins so long as he had any of the less valuable old coins with



Sir Isaac Newton.

which to make his purchases, and as the old coins became smaller and smaller by clipping, tradesmen naturally raised the prices of their goods.

Things were so bad that Montagu proposed that the use of the old coins should be forbidden, but, to prevent people losing by this, they might bring their old coins to the mint, and receive new milled ones instead of them. This good work was carried out with the aid of Sir Isaac Newton, the great mathematician and astronomer, whom Montagu had appointed Master of the Mint. Newton introduced great improvements in the coining machinery,

and thus the new coins were rapidly put in circulation. People were much pleased with them, and the benefit to the traders and indeed to the whole community was very great.

Lastly, William's reign saw the "freedom of the Press" accomplished. For many years there had been severe restrictions on the printing trade. Printing could only be done at London, York, and the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and no book or newspaper could be published until a license had been obtained from an officer of the Crown. In 1695 the Act of Parliament on which the licensing office depended was not renewed, and from that time to this men everywhere have been free to print and publish what they please, so long as they print nothing that violates the law.

The importance of this can easily be seen. Printing presses were set up in every town; books became more plentiful; and newspapers were started which carried news of public events into every corner of the kingdom. Thus the nation knew better what its government was doing, and was in a better position to elect members of parliament who would really represent the national wishes. The great force known as "public opinion" sprang up, which since that time English statesmen have had more and more to reckon with.

THE REIGN OF ANNE.

(1702-1714.)

1. THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

William's successor was Anne, the second daughter of James II., a good and kind-hearted woman, accustomed

to rely much on her friends, and yet endowed with an obstinate will of her own. The Church was the great object of her care; she was distinguished by her pious love for it.

The real ruler of England for some years was that John Churchill of whom we have already heard. He was now Earl of Marlborough, and his wife, a woman of great spirit and ability, but of a masculine and overbearing temper, had for years been the bosom friend of the queen. In Marlborough high and noble qualities were united with meanness and self-seeking; but England has had



Queen Anne.

no greater soldier and few greater statesmen. He never fought a battle without winning it; he never besieged a town without taking it. He never lost his temper even under the greatest provocation, was never cast down before disappointment and difficulty, and carried through with the greatest ease tasks which seemed impossible. On the field of battle he was calm and

clear-headed; he treated his prisoners humanely; he had no savage love of fighting, but fought always with a clear, statesmanlike view of some political benefit to be gained.

The greater part of Anne's reign was occupied with



John, Duke of Marlborough.

the War of the Spanish Succession, a war which she inherited from William. England was allied with Holland and other continental powers against France. Marlborough was commander-in-chief of the English and Dutch forces, and, of the other generals of the allies, Prince Eugene of Savoy

was the most skilful and famous. He and Marlborough were true brothers-in-arms, and worked together in undisturbed harmony.

The first great event of the war was Marlborough's capture of the fortress of Liège in 1702, for which he was made a duke. Two years later Eugene and he won the famous victory of Blenheim, in which they defeated a much larger army of French and Bavarians, and took the French general prisoner. This victory undoubtedly

saved England from a Jacobite invasion, and the grateful country endowed the victor with a large pension and with the estate of Woodstock, near Oxford. Less than a fortnight before Blenheim, Admirals Rooke and Shovel had captured the rock fortress of Gibraltar, a commanding post, "the key of the Mediterranean", which England has retained ever since.

In 1706 Marlborough won, by an admirable piece of generalship, his second great victory, at Ramillies, where the French lost all their baggage and most of their artillery. This, coupled with the exploits of the dashing English commander in Spain, the Earl of Peterborough, led to negotiations for peace, which Marlborough successfully opposed because he thought the proposed terms not favourable enough to England. In 1708 the French were laying siege to Oudenarde when Marlborough and Eugene came up to its relief, and defeated a splendid French army under the Duke of Vendome. Later in the year the allies captured Lille, after a siege skilfully resisted for three and a half months by Marshal Boufflers. Meanwhile they had lost the battle of Almanza in Spain, but had captured the islands of Sardinia and Minorca in the Mediterranean.

The year 1709 saw the last great battles of the war. Marlborough had captured Tournay, and was proceeding to invest Mons, when Marshal Villars came up with a large army to defend it. A terrible battle took place at Malplaquet, where both Eugene and Marlborough fought in person at the head of their troops, and Eugene, as well as the French marshal, was wounded. Though the allies were victorious, they lost far more men than the French; Malplaquet was the most hard-fought and destructive battle of the war. A Highland brigade won

much distinction on the side of the allies, while on the French side the famous Irish brigade showed splendid valour.

The war continued for nearly three years longer, but both sides were exhausted by the struggle, and were glad to make peace by the *Treaty of Utrecht*, signed in 1713. By this treaty Louis' grandson Philip was confirmed in the kingdom of Spain, but it was provided that the crowns of Spain and France should not be united. England retained Gibraltar and Minorca, and made other substantial gains which will be noticed in a later chapter.

2. HOME AFFAIRS.—I.

Party government, which had its beginning in William III.'s reign, was greatly developed in the reign of Anne. The Tories, who represented the old cavalier party, had accepted the Revolution as a disagreeable necessity, and were determined to maintain the royal power and the pre-eminence of the Church. The Whigs, a growth from the Puritan and Republican stock, thought the "Glorious Revolution" (as they called it) a magnificent step in the direction of freedom and self-government; they set Parliament above the sovereign, and, numbering among them almost the whole of the Dissenters, they were inclined to resist any increase in the powers and importance of the Church. There were, moreover, two church parties—the High Churchmen, who were also Tories, and the Low Churchmen, who were mainly Whigs. These parties in Church and State had a great influence on the political affairs of the nation. As a body the Tories were opposed to the war, while the Whigs were in favour of it; Marl-

borough, though a Tory, agreed with the Whigs on that question.

The great event of the reign was the Union of England and Scotland in 1707. For a hundred years the two countries had been ruled by one sovereign, though in other respects independent of each other, each having its own Parliament. Disputes were thus constantly likely to occur, and international jealousies at times brought the two countries perilously near to actual warfare.

In order to get rid of this ever-threatening danger, one of the earliest acts of Queen Anne's reign was the appointment in 1702 of Commissioners of the English and Scottish Parliaments to consider terms for an Act of Union. The Commissioners separated in February, 1703, without having reached a mutual understanding.

The Scots Parliament in consequence passed an *Act of Security*, whereby on the death of the sovereign the crown should go to one who was not also monarch of England. In Scotland there was a general belief that, since the Union of the two crowns, the wealth and influence of the country had diminished owing to the greater favour shown by the monarch to his larger kingdom. The Scots also resented the shutting of English colonies to their trade.

The recent failure of the Darien scheme of William Paterson, the founder of the Bank of England, seemed to them to be a case in point. Paterson had, during the reign of William, devised a scheme for colonizing the Isthmus of Darien, which was eagerly taken up by his countrymen, who invested in it almost all the money they possessed, and of whom hundreds crossed the seas as settlers. It failed, owing partly to the wretched climate, partly to the hostility of English colonists and

merchants, partly to the opposition of Spain, and largely, as the Scots firmly believed, to the apathy, if not active hostility, of King William himself.

The memory of this disastrous failure, which had brought ruin to nearly every household in the land, added to the bitter recollection of the Glencoe massacre, convinced the Scottish Parliament that, failing a union on favourable terms, the only hope of restoring prosperity lay in complete severance from England. To effect this separation was the purpose of the *Act of Security*.

The passing of this act roused the English Parliament to a sense of the necessity for concluding a treaty of Union on terms agreeable to the Scots. In 1706 a new Commission of both Parliaments was appointed, and in 1707 the Act of Union was passed. The two countries were declared one under the name of Great Britain, with one Parliament sitting in London, and freedom of trade between the two was established. Scotland profited immensely by her new liberty to trade with the English colonies, and England gained new security for her government.

3. HOME AFFAIRS.—II.

The Tories had been in power from the opening of Anne's reign. The two chief men of the party, after Marlborough and his friend the Lord Treasurer Godolphin, were Robert Harley, afterwards Earl of Oxford, and Henry St. John, afterwards Viscount Bolingbroke. Of these two Bolingbroke was by far the greater in mental power; Harley was an astute party manager.

Harley had a great friend at court in the person of Mrs. Masham, who was a cousin of his and also of the Duchess

of Marlborough, to whom, indeed, she owed her place as bedchamber woman to Queen Anne. She was soft of speech and gentle in manner, and gradually stole away the queen's affection from her imperious favourite the duchess. As a result, Harley was able to undermine



Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford.

Marlborough's influence and power, and by his advice the queen appointed some bishops without consulting her chief ministers. Marlborough was strong enough to insist on Harley's dismissal from office; his fellow Tories resigned, and the ministry then became practically Whig.

But the Whigs soon lost their

power through making a foolish mistake. A noisy wind-bag of a clergyman, named Dr. Sacheverell, who belonged to the extreme High Church party, had preached two sermons in which he attacked the principles of the Revolution, called Lord Godolphin by insulting names, abused the Dissenters, and raised the cry, the Church is in danger! The ministers foolishly impeached the preacher, who at once posed as a persecuted martyr, and won immense popularity. He was condemned by the

Lords, but it was already seen that a mistake had been made, and his punishment was light. But the impeachment, added to discontent with the war, made the Whigs so unpopular that Anne, who preferred the Tories, dismissed her Whig ministers, and recalled Harley and St. John.

The fall of Marlborough was the natural consequence. He was accused of using the money of the State for his own purposes, and was dismissed from all his offices, though he had a perfect defence to the charge. The rise of the Tories led to the stoppage of the great war, for though there was a Whig majority in the House of Lords favourable to its continuance, twelve new Tory peers were created at Harley's suggestion, and this turned the balance.

Very soon Harley and St. John, now Lords Oxford and Bolingbroke, quarrelled. Bolingbroke, anxious to win the permanent support of the High Church party, carried through Parliament the *Schism Act*, which ordained that no one should keep a school unless he were a member of the Church of England and licensed by his bishop. This act hit the Dissenters hard, and Lord Oxford, himself a Dissenter by birth, was offended at Bolingbroke's eagerness to pass the bill. There was previously ill-feeling between them because Oxford had obtained a higher title in the peerage than his rival. An open quarrel took place between them at the council table, and the queen, who had a personal dislike to Oxford, dismissed him from office.

Only five days later Anne, who had long been in bad health, died. There was great excitement in the country, for many people expected the Jacobites to make an attempt to restore the Stuart line. Bolingbroke him-

self, as well as many others of the Tory party, had been scheming with this end in view; but the queen died before his plans were complete. On her death-bed she made Lord Shrewsbury—a Whig, and one of the men who had invited William of Orange to England—lord treasurer. By his prompt action the succession to the throne, appointed by law, was peacefully assured. The Electress Sophia of Hanover had died only a few months before Anne; her eldest son George, Elector of Hanover, was the new King of Great Britain and Ireland.

PROGRESS DURING THE STUART PERIOD.

The death of Queen Anne brought the "Stuart period" to an end, a most momentous period in the history of Britain. The most striking facts of these hundred years are the growth of the power of Parliament, and the beginning of the colonial empire.

From being merely a body for occasional consultation, Parliament had become the greatest factor in the government. It had acquired absolute control over taxation, the army, and the judges. The sovereign still retained the power of choosing and dismissing his ministers, and of vetoing the bills of Parliament; but the latter right was only used once by William and once by Anne; and successive impeachments from Strafford to Danby had shown that ministers, however trusted by the Crown, were to be held responsible to Parliament.

Ever since the defeat of the Armada had shown England what her power might become on the sea, Englishmen had been seeking adventures, wealth, and openings for trade in both hemispheres. The ships of

Spain were chased into the very harbours of her colonies across the western seas, and Englishmen became acquainted with new lands, and became filled with the longing to possess them.

Trade with India, in rivalry with the Dutch, resulted in the grant of a charter to the East India Company on the last day of the 16th century. Forty years later, the company acquired a great factory at Madras, and the Indian trade grew to such dimensions that the Company constructed new docks, built its own ships, made its own masts, tackle, and gear of all kinds, even baked its own bread, and reaped a profit of 100 per cent on its outlay. The marriage of Charles II. to a Portuguese princess brought Bombay, a possession of Portugal, into the hands of England, and since that time, as we shall see later, the British possessions have continually increased.

In the West Indies, too, great acquisitions had been made. The rich and fertile islands had at first been divided between England, France, and Spain; but under Cromwell Jamaica was snatched from Spain, and other islands in course of time fell to Britain by conquest or treaty. The great sugar trade of the West Indies sprang up, the plantations being worked partly by free labour, but mainly by the forced labour of slaves, some of whom were Scots and Irishmen whom Cromwell took prisoner in his wars, but the majority negroes shipped from their home in Africa.

The negro slave-trade, started by Sir John Hawkins in Elizabeth's reign, had increased and become a great source of wealth to those engaged in it. The right of supplying the Spanish colonies with slaves (known as the *Assiento*), which had once belonged to the Dutch,

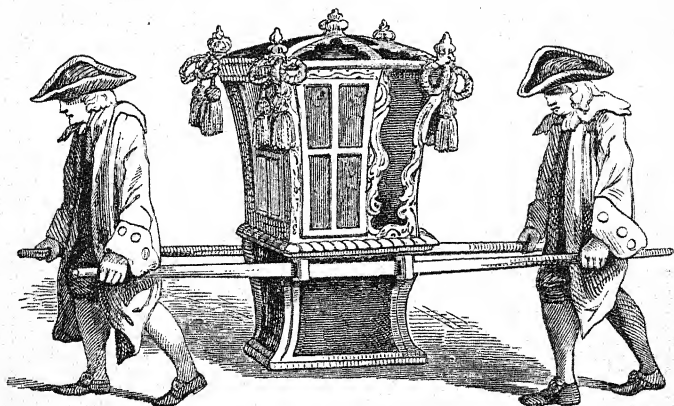
came at length into the hands of a French company, but was given up to England by the Treaty of Utrecht. In those days men had not learnt the immorality, and even the folly from a business point of view, of that horrible trade.

In North America, English colonies had gradually spread all along the eastern coast. In addition to Newfoundland, Virginia, New England, and Maryland, the great colonies of Pennsylvania and Carolina had sprung up; and at the beginning of the second Dutch war in Charles II.'s reign, the English captured the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, and changed the name of its chief city to New York, in honour of the king's brother. The treaty which brought the war to a close gave England the island of St. Helena, a convenient place of call for ships trading with the East Indies. The Treaty of Utrecht gave Britain the West Indian island of St. Christopher, and assured her in the possession of Nova Scotia and Newfoundland, with the reservation of certain fishing rights to the French.

The result of this great opening up of the New World was an enormous extension of British trade; the effects of which were the starting of new manufactures, and the rapid growth of cities in size and wealth. Wool and agricultural produce ceased to be the chief articles of export, and with the rise of the great middle class in towns the old yeoman class—farmers living in their own homesteads and tilling their own land—began to decay. Bristol ranked next in size and wealth to London; Norwich and Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, and Liverpool became busy and prosperous cities.

London itself grew with a rapidity which alarmed the government. The Royal Exchange took the place

formerly held by the exchange of Amsterdam as the mart of the world. Docks and business houses crowded thick upon one another. There were no railway-trains, nor even lumbering "buses" to take the city merchants to villas in the suburbs: they lived over their business premises, and formed a community which had vast



Sedan Chair, of date 1755.

influence in public affairs. At the same time the permanent location of the Court and the Parliament in Westminster led to the rapid growth of the "west-end", which before long became larger and scarcely less wealthy than the City itself.

The London of Queen Anne was not the clean, well-lighted, well-guarded city of to-day. Though a great part of it had been rebuilt after the Fire, the streets were narrow and dirty, without gutters, unlighted at night except by feeble oil-lamps far apart, unguarded except by broken-down old watchmen who walked the streets singing out the hour by the clock, and carefully keeping

out of the way of the bands of riotous young men of fashion who were the terror of all peaceable persons.

Trade with the East brought tea and coffee to England. Costing at first as much as twenty shillings a pound, the new beverages gradually became popular, and in great measure took the place of beer. Coffee-houses were started in London, at which the wits and politicians of the day met and talked, each house becoming known as the haunt of a particular party or set.

The majority of the people were very badly educated, but learning and science were diligently cultivated. The Royal Society, founded by Charles II., consisted of a number of men interested in science and scientific discovery, and included among its early members Sir Isaac Newton, the great discoverer of the law of gravitation. In literature, the names of Milton, Bunyan, Dryden, Addison, Steele, Swift, and Pope—to name a few only—shine in bright letters on the glorious roll of the world's great writers. In architecture, Sir Christopher Wren, the designer of the new St. Paul's Cathedral, was without an equal; in music, Henry Purcell was the greatest artist of his day. In painting, England was behind foreign nations, but extended a generous patronage to the artists who came to her shores.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FIRST.

(1714-1727.)

1. THE JACOBITES.—THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE.

The fact that George I. was a foreigner had a most important effect on the development of Parliamentary government. An honest and industrious man, a soldier

who had fought bravely against England's enemies abroad, George was a thorough German, who knew no English, and loved his little principedom of Hanover more than his new kingdom. He soon ceased to preside at meetings of his council, where the proceedings were unintelligible to him, and confided the government to his ministers. Since that time, except in George III.'s reign, the part taken by the sovereign in the actual work of government has been almost of no account.

As George owed his kingdom to the Whigs, it was natural that Whigs should be entrusted with the government. The most important of the



George I.

ministers who held office during the early part of the reign was Lord Townshend, an upright and industrious man. The Parliament elected in 1715 was strongly Whig, and began an impeachment of Bolingbroke and Oxford as traitors. Bolingbroke fled to France and joined the Pretender; Oxford remained to face his accusers, and, the impeachment being dropped, suffered only two years' imprisonment for misdemeanour.

Though the plans of the Jacobites had been frustrated

by the prompt measures of Shrewsbury and the Whigs, all danger from them was not yet over. Jacobite risings took place in several quarters, and to cope with the danger the *Riot Act* was passed, which declared that if twelve or more persons unlawfully assembled, and refused to disperse when ordered to do so by a magistrate, they were guilty of felony; and if any of them lost their lives in being dispersed by force, no one was to be held guilty of murder. This act is still in force.

In Scotland, an insurrection on behalf of the Pretender was headed by the Earl of Mar, while some lords and gentlemen in the north of England rose in the same cause. A drawn battle was fought between Mar and the royal forces under Argyle at Sheriffmuir, where Mar, by a strange piece of folly, threw away a good chance of success. Soon after, the Pretender himself landed in Scotland, but he was so dull and spiritless that his presence injured instead of helping his cause, and he was glad to sail back to France. Meanwhile the English rising had been crushed at Preston; Lords Derwentwater and Kenmure and thirty-eight other persons were put to death. So ended the rebellion of 1715.

Since the reign of William III. a law had been in force limiting the duration of a Parliament to three years. So short a term had its disadvantages, and the Whigs, wishing to make sure of a longer period of power, passed in 1716 the *Septennial Act*, which made seven years the maximum term for any one Parliament. Some of the advantages of this act, which is still in force, are that the country is not too frequently put to the expense of a general election, that the policy of the country is not too frequently changed, and that there is time between

two elections for political excitement to cool, and for the elected Parliament to devote itself calmly and steadily to its work.

In 1717, there was disagreement among the members of the Cabinet, and Townshend, who had offended the king, was dismissed from office. The chief ministers then were Lords Sunderland and Stanhope. The latter carried the repeal of the Schism Act¹ and of other acts inflicting hardships on Dissenters, and would have repealed the Test Act also but for the violent opposition which his proposal met.

The fall of the Sunderland and Stanhope ministry was caused in 1720 by the bursting of the South Sea Bubble. Nine years before, a company had been formed with the title of the South Sea Company, for the purpose of trading with Spanish America. Such extraordinary tales were told of the wealth to be realized, that everybody was anxious to take shares in this company, and for some years it had flourished.

In 1719, however, the government, alarmed at the rapid increase of the national debt, made an arrangement by which the company took over the debt. The directors of the company advanced large sums of money to pay off those people who wanted their loans to the government repaid, and gave shares in the company to the people who were willing to accept them in place of their money. Many people were willing to do so, because of the great reputation of the company; and when the scheme became known, hundreds more, believing that a plan authorized by the government must be safe, eagerly bought shares. The price of a share gradually rose from £100 to £1000, and the directors assured the

¹ See p. 105.

shareholders that they would receive at least 50 per cent on their investment.

The apparent success of the South Sea Scheme led to the formation of other companies, some of them with the most ridiculous objects. The South Sea directors took proceedings against some of the rival companies as being illegal, with the result that shareholders in the company, looking more closely into its affairs, began to see that its trade would never make profits large enough to replace the enormous sums it had supplied to the government. Fearing that their money was lost, the people so eager formerly to buy were now frantic to sell their shares. The price rapidly fell: shares that had cost £1000 were by and by sold for £135. Of course it was now difficult to find purchasers for the shares, and people who had bought at the high prices lost their money.

Dreadful ruin was the result: lords and ladies, clergymen and working-men, people of all classes were reduced to beggary, and fiercely called for the punishment of those who had deceived them. Some of the ministers were connected with the company, and investigation showed that there had been a large amount of corrupt dealing. Sunderland was compelled to resign; Aislachie, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, was sent to the Tower; the Postmaster-general committed suicide; Stanhope, whose part in the scheme had been very small, was so enraged at the taunts of an opponent in the House of Lords that he was seized with a fit and died.

There was one statesman who had all along lifted up his voice against the scheme, and who was now called upon to bring order out of this confusion. That man was Robert Walpole, England's first prime minister.

2. SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.—I.

Robert Walpole, born in 1676, was the son of a Norfolk squire. In his twenty-fifth year he succeeded his father, both in the possession of the family estate and as member of Parliament for the pocket borough of Castle Rising. A year later he became member for his other pocket borough, Lynn Regis, which he continued to represent for forty years.

It was soon seen that the young member was a man of ability and character. In appearance he was a plain, jovial country squire; he loved sport and hunting, and his tastes and manners,



Sir Robert Walpole, afterwards Earl of Orford.

like those of most men of his time, were somewhat coarse. Under his rough exterior, however, there lay some of the qualities of genius. He was good-humoured and generous, active and industrious, a keen observer of men and things, staunch to the principles he professed, and endowed with the valuable gift of knowing how to manage men. He was a great financier, and a lover of peace; and as a statesman he fixed our modern form of government, guided Britain safely through a very difficult period, and did much to increase British trade and wealth.

It was the Duke of Marlborough who brought Walpole into the service of his country by giving him a subordinate office in the government. The young man at once showed his special skill in dealing with figures. He was one of the managers of Sacheverell's impeachment, which led to the fall of the Whigs; and soon afterward, to get rid of him as a sturdy opponent, the Tories accused him of corruption, expelled him from the House of Commons, and confined him for a short time in the Tower.

When the Whigs returned to power at the accession of George I., Walpole became, first, Paymaster of the Forces and then Chancellor of the Exchequer. On the dismissal of Lord Townshend from office in 1717, Walpole, who was his brother-in-law, resigned, and persisted in his resignation, though the king no less than ten times put the seals of office back into his hands. Recalled to power on the bursting of the "South Sea Bubble", he became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, offices which he held for twenty-one years.

Walpole was distinguished as a statesman by his avoidance of measures which would awaken religious or political animosity. "Let sleeping dogs lie" was his motto. Such a course proved of inestimable benefit to the country. During his term of office the nation at large was prosperous and happy; trade doubled in value; the national debt was reduced; and life was easier for the poor than it had been almost ever before.

Walpole's good sense was soon shown in a question relating to Ireland. The bronze coinage of that country being deficient, a patent to supply new coins was obtained, in no very creditable way, for an English iron-master. This gave rise to great agitation in Ireland, where the Parliament objected to the new coinage as excessive in

amount, and because it was English. The brilliant writer, Jonathan Swift, Dean of St. Patrick's, Dublin, took the opportunity to vent his hatred of the English government in the *Drapier's Letters*, and the opposition grew so fierce that Walpole wisely withdrew the coinage.

Walpole had no further trouble with Ireland, but in 1727 an act was passed by the Irish Parliament which took away from Roman Catholics the right of voting at elections. This Act remained in force till 1793, and during that period the Irish, the vast majority of whom were Catholics, were governed entirely by the Protestants, who naturally looked chiefly after their own interests. The consequences were that the Irish peasantry were oppressed and discouraged, Irish trade and agriculture languished, and the country was confirmed in its discontent and its bitter hatred of English rule.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE SECOND.

(1727-1760.)

1. SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.—II.

George I. died suddenly in his coach while travelling in Hanover, and his son became king as George II. As everyone expected, Walpole was dismissed from office, for the new king, when Prince of Wales, had been on bad terms with his father, and had no love for his father's great minister. Sir Spencer Compton was the new head of the government, but so incapable was he that he had to ask Walpole's assistance in writing the speech in which the king was to address his first parliament. George soon saw that it would be wise to retain the late minister, and when Walpole judiciously promised

to get Parliament to increase the royal income, he was recalled to office.

George II. was an honest man and a brave soldier; he had fought under Marlborough at Oudenarde; but he was a most unpleasant man to deal with. He was of a most irritable temper, apt to break out into fury at any little thing that upset him, and hard and ungenerous to those who served him. His only present to Walpole, who served him well, was a small diamond, and even that was discovered to be cracked right through.

Walpole owed his influence with George to the queen, a lively and intelligent woman, who spent half her life in keeping her husband in good temper. She took the trouble to understand English affairs, and, seeing Walpole's ability, she trusted him fully, and by wonderful tact and patience succeeded in bringing the king to accept his views and policy. Walpole acknowledged how much he owed to her. "If," he said, "I have had the merit of giving any good advice to the king, all the merit of making him take it, madam, is entirely your own; and so much so, that I not only never did do anything without you, but I know I never could."

Walpole was the first statesman who was generally called "Prime Minister". We have seen that in former reigns individual ministers had stood above their fellows in the government, but before Walpole no one was ever distinctly recognized as the head. The growth of parliamentary government was the cause of the change. The king had ceased to preside at the Council, a president was necessary, and therefore it was inevitable that one minister should take the lead.

It was in Walpole's time that party government and the Cabinet became fixed elements in our constitution.

Both William and Anne had endeavoured to govern with a ministry composed both of Whigs and Tories; but as the differences between the parties grew wider, government on such terms became impossible. Thus it came about that the ministry was composed, and is to-day composed, of men belonging to the same party, and united more or less by a profession of the same principles.

The Cabinet is a committee of the principal officers of State, who are chosen by the Prime Minister. Each minister is responsible for the work of his own department, but all are respon-



George II.

sible for the policy of the government as a whole. If any member disagrees with that policy he is bound to resign office, though he was not considered bound to do so in Walpole's time.

The Cabinet is responsible to the House of Commons, and can only govern if it has a majority there. In Walpole's time, the Prime Minister was appointed by the king himself; but now the sovereign is practically bound to appoint the man who is generally recognized

as leader of that party which has a majority in the House of Commons.

The charge is often made against Walpole that he kept his power by the short and easy method of turning out members of the government who did not agree with him, and by lavishly bribing members of Parliament with money, titles, and offices. As to the first part of this charge, it is clear that Walpole, as head of the government, could not allow his work to be endangered or destroyed by internal dissensions; and it was for any colleague who disagreed with him either to go, or to prove himself more fit to carry on the government. As to the second part, it is now known that the amount of public money spent by Walpole in bribes was comparatively small, and the practice of granting offices and titles to influence votes was at that time very common. It is certain that Walpole, before resorting to what would now be considered corrupt means to effect his ends, tried argument, and persuasion, and every other means open to him.

2. SIR ROBERT WALPOLE.—III.

It has already been said that Walpole was a great financier, and did much to extend Britain's trade. He removed customs and excise duties on many articles of export and import, and in 1730 he passed an Act allowing the planters in the American colonies of Georgia and Carolina to send their rice to Continental Europe, provided it was sent in British ships. Some years later he gave the same freedom to the sugar planters of the West Indies. Formerly the colonies had only been allowed to trade with the mother country; their new liberty made their trade increase by leaps and bounds.

It was on a question of trade that the first great blow was struck at Walpole's power. In 1732 he proposed to remove tobacco from the list of imports on which customs duties were paid, and place it on the excise list: that is, duty was not to be paid on tobacco when it came into the country in its raw state, but only when it was removed from the warehouses for sale. The same regulation was also to apply to wine. By this proposal he hoped to put an end to smuggling and other abuses, and thus benefit the honest trader, to collect the duties more easily and in larger amount, and thus be able to reduce the heavy land tax and so please the country gentlemen.

The proposal was a wise one, but it aroused the most violent opposition. It was ignorantly opposed by the very merchants who would have benefited by it. Walpole's enemies and opponents made the most absurd and false statements about his designs. "Food, clothing, and all the other necessities of life," they said, "were to be loaded with a crushing tax. Every man's house would be invaded at every hour by the excise officer. A great standing army of revenue officers would be created, who would overturn Magna Charta, undermine Parliament, and degrade Englishmen as low as wretched slaves." Petitions against the scheme were sent up from all parts of the country, and at last Walpole, after holding out with great good temper as long as he could, bowed to the storm, and withdrew his proposals. The king and queen would not let him resign. George, brave himself, admired his minister's courage, and cried out, "He is a brave fellow; he has more spirit than any man I ever knew".

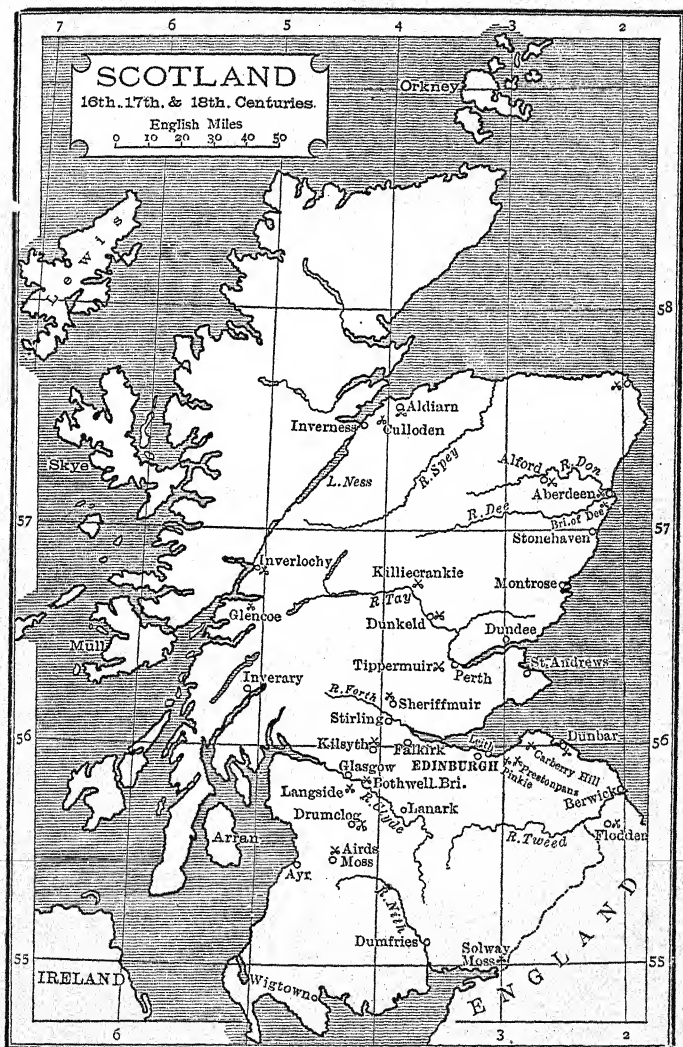
In 1735 the Porteous Riots in Edinburgh gave Walpole an opportunity for showing his moderation and tact. "A

smuggler who had excited the popular imagination by his daring and his chivalry was sentenced to be hanged: after his execution the mob pressed forward and threw stones at the hangman and the guard. Porteous, the captain of the city guard, ordered his men to fire, and several persons were shot dead; he was tried for murder, convicted and sentenced, but at the last moment a reprieve arrived from London, to the intense indignation of a crowd athirst for vengeance. Four days later, fierce throngs suddenly gathered at nightfall to the beat of drum, broke into the prison, dragged out the unhappy Porteous, and sternly hanged him on a dyer's pole close by the common place of execution."¹ The Parliament was for inflicting heavy punishment on Edinburgh; but Walpole, knowing how unwise it would be to exasperate the Scots, used all his tact to bring about a calmer and more reasonable state of feeling.

The death of Queen Caroline in 1737 dealt a severe blow to Walpole's power. In her last hours she got King George's promise to stand by the minister—a promise faithfully kept as long as it was possible to keep it. The opposition to Walpole grew stronger and stronger. There was a complete breach between the king and the Prince of Wales, who ceased to be on speaking terms, and Walpole's political opponents sided with the prince. Thus the ordinary difficulties of government were aggravated by personal and court squabbles.

A great outcry arose for war with Spain. The Treaty of Utrecht had given Britain the right to send one ship a year to trade with the Spanish colonies. This right was abused; the one ship was followed by others, which remained out of sight while the first ship was unloading

¹ John Morley's *Walpole* (English Statesmen Series.)



at a Spanish port, and then, at night, restocked her from their own cargoes. British ships also engaged in smuggling on the Spanish coasts. The Spaniards exercised their right of search on British ships, and sometimes punished the offenders severely. Then English merchants spread tales of cruelties practised on the Spanish main. "Gentlemen read letters to the House of Commons about seventy of our brave sailors lying in chains in Spanish dungeons." A certain Captain Jenkins came before the House, and told how his ship had been boarded by the Spaniards, whose captain had pulled off his ear and told him to take it to his king. The whole nation clamoured for war.

Walpole was always opposed to war, and the prosperity of the country during his rule was largely due to his care in keeping England out of foreign disputes. But, driven by the strong national feeling, he reluctantly declared war against Spain in 1739. The country was delighted. "Ah," said the great minister, "they are ringing their bells to-day; they will soon be wringing their hands!" He was right. One Spanish town, Porto Bello, was captured, but no other successes crowned British arms, and the failure was ascribed to the lukewarmness of Walpole. A motion was made in Parliament to present an address to the king, asking him to remove Walpole from office. The minister opposed the motion in a powerful and dignified speech, and it was defeated by large majorities in both Houses.

At the general election of 1741, however, the opposition, aided by the Prince of Wales, strove with all their might to gain a majority over Walpole's party. When Parliament met, it was found that parties were almost evenly balanced. But there was disagreement among the ministers, and

some of Walpole's supporters deserted him, because they saw that his was the losing side. For some time Walpole made a stubborn and heroic resistance, in spite of a dwindling majority which at length disappeared altogether. Recognizing then that the opposition was too strong for him, the prime minister resigned his office, the king accepting his resignation with tears, and bestowing on him a peerage with the title of Earl of Orford.

His enemies talked wildly of impeaching him; mobs carried his effigy in procession to the Tower. But all that came of the agitation was the appointment of a committee to examine his administration, which, after hearing witnesses and diligently searching private papers, discovered nothing upon which any grave charge could be founded.

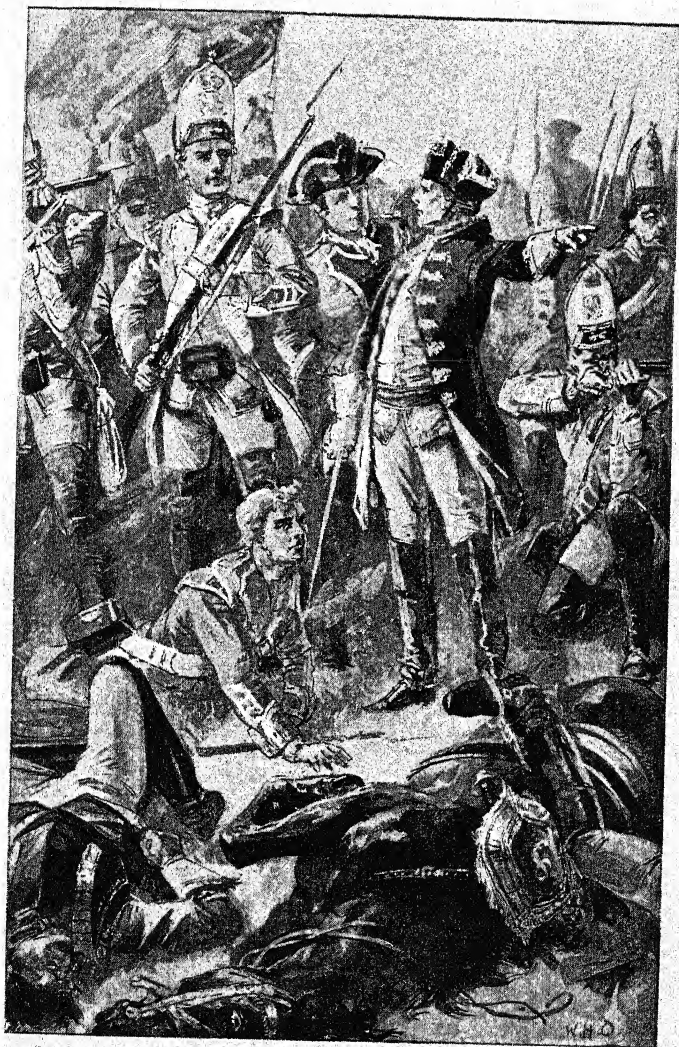
A year later the tide of popularity flowed again towards Walpole. His successors in the ministry lacked his good sense, his clear head, his firm grip of affairs. They found themselves obliged to ask his counsel, and by and by the confusion due to their incompetence became so great that the king sent for Walpole to come and advise him what to do. The great man came up from his Norfolk home in obedience to the summons, though suffering tortures from illness. Men drank his health and wished him well, hoping that he would become Prime Minister again. But on March 18, 1745, after a time of intense suffering, borne with patience and with his habitual good-humour, Robert Walpole, first Prime Minister of England, died. England lost in him, not one of her noblest, but one of her wisest, greatest, and most useful sons.

3. WAR AND REBELLION.

For more than sixty years after Walpole's fall England was scarcely ever at peace. The war with Spain soon became merged in a greater war in which nearly all Europe was involved. The Emperor Charles VI. of Austria, having no son, was anxious that at his death his dominions should pass to his daughter, the beautiful Princess Maria Theresa, and succeeded in gaining the assent of the powers of Europe to his plan. But when he died in 1740, all the powers broke their engagement except England and Holland. The King of Prussia seized Silesia, in the extreme east of the Empire; the Elector of Bavaria claimed Austria and had himself elected emperor, and France and Spain supported him. George II. as elector of Hanover was drawn into the struggle, and he put himself at the head of a large force of English, Hanoverian, and Dutch troops, on behalf of Maria Theresa.

At the battle of Dettingen, George, taking advantage of the mistakes of the opposing generals, inflicted a severe defeat on a combined force of French and Bavarians. The personal bravery which he showed on the field made him more popular at home than he had ever been before. In the battle his horse ran away with him, and when it was stopped, he dismounted and said with determination, "No more running away now!" At a critical moment he took his place at the head of his troops, crying, "Steady, my boys! fire, my brave boys; give them fire, and the French will soon run!" and led them to the charge.

In revenge for this defeat, the French prepared to send a large army to England, to win back the crown



George II. at Dettingen.

for the exiled Stuarts. But the winds, as a French general said, were certainly not Jacobite, and a storm scattered the fleet prepared for the invasion. Next year, however, the English, under the king's son, the Duke of Cumberland, suffered a defeat at Fontenoy, mainly because they were badly supported by their Dutch allies. This success inflamed the hopes of the Jacobites; and Charles Edward, the grandson of James II., known in England as the Young Pretender, determined to make an effort to gain the crown of England for his father. He could get no help from France, but nevertheless he sailed away in a small ship, and landed at Moidart on the north-west coast of Scotland on July 25, 1745, with only seven companions.

The young prince was a brave and handsome man of twenty-five, full of hope and high spirits, and endowed with such winning manners that he soon gathered round him a number of Highland chiefs at the head of their clans. Sir John Cope, the commander of the royalist forces in Scotland, had little military skill, and no knowledge of the country, and by a mistaken march to Inverness he allowed the Young Pretender to occupy Edinburgh, where he was received with considerable enthusiasm. Hastily coming south again, Cope showed an utter want of generalship, and allowed the rebels to surprise him at Prestonpans, where his army was routed by the wild charge of the Highlanders.

After this victory Charles Edward remained for six weeks at Edinburgh, increasing his army, and making preparations for an invasion of England. His officers advised him to wait for help from France, but the prince was eager for another battle. So he marched into England, took Carlisle, proceeded through Lancaster,

Preston, and Manchester to Derby, hoping all the way that the English Jacobites would flock to his side. But he was disappointed. The people had so long enjoyed peace and prosperity under Walpole's wise administration that they had no wish to see George replaced on the throne by James. Not only did few recruits come to Charles, but his own army was reduced by desertion.

When he reached Derby, only 127 miles from London, and learnt that he was between two English armies, while a third force was assembling on Finchley Common for the defence of London, he gave way to the entreaties of his officers, and with sad reluctance ordered a retreat. A slight success in the north of England, and a victory at Falkirk gave him fitful hopes of ultimate triumph; but on Culloden Moor, in Inverness-shire, in April, 1746, his army, weary, hungry, and disheartened, was thoroughly defeated by the Duke of Cumberland.

This ended the last Stuart rebellion. Prince Charles lived for five months the life of a hunted animal among the mountains, where the poor, loyal Highlanders sheltered him in spite of the immense reward offered to anyone who would give him up. Then he escaped to France, where the once high-spirited, ambitious prince lived an aimless life, and gradually sank into a miserable drunkard. His father died in 1766, Charles Edward died in 1788, and with the death of his brother Henry, a cardinal, at Rome in 1805, the Stuart royal family in the male line passed out of existence.

The rebellion having been crushed, English statesmen took wise measures to render rebellion less likely to occur in the future. The rebels were punished, some by ordinary process of law, others by the barbarous cruelties of "Butcher" Cumberland and his soldiers. The

Highland chiefs were deprived of their power over the clans, which were disarmed and forbidden to wear the kilt and tartan, the distinctive clan dress. A few years later William Pitt, at the suggestion of a Scotsman, raised Highland regiments for the British army, and thus the fighting Highlanders were led to use their courage and splendid vigour for, instead of against, the United Kingdom.

4. BRITAIN AND FRANCE. WILLIAM PITT.—I.

The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, though it brought the war of the Austrian Succession to an end in 1748, left unsettled the great questions which had given rise to the war. Not many years passed before Britain was engaged in a new struggle, which, though entailing a vast expenditure of blood and treasure, resulted in the strengthening of the foundations of the British empire. The real cause of the struggle was the rivalry among the nations for commercial supremacy. As we have seen, British trade had for generations been pushing out to all points of the compass in search of new markets; and as France, Spain, and the Netherlands were engaged in similar proceedings, it was inevitable that Britain should come into conflict with them. Among these, France had become her most formidable rival.

The British colonies in North America, starting with New England and Virginia in the reign of James I., had by this time spread all along the eastern coast. To the south of them, on the Gulf of Mexico, Spain held Florida; to the north, the French held Canada, and to the south and west Louisiana, which cut the British off from the west of the continent. The French claimed exclusive

rights of trading with the native Indians, and in 1749 erected a number of forts, with the intention of crippling British trade.

The British colonists were naturally alarmed at this, and when their efforts to capture the principal fort failed, and French troops were continually imported by the French governors, it was seen that help must come from England. In 1755 General Braddock, in marching to attack Fort Duquesne, was defeated by a combined force of French and Indians, while elsewhere the French suffered



William Pitt, first Earl of Chatham.

defeats. It was clear that France and England must fight out the question which country was to be supreme in the western world, and war was formally declared between them in 1756.

At the same time Europe saw the beginning of the Seven Years' War, in which England joined with Prussia against France, Austria, and Russia. The opening of the war was disastrous for England. A French expedition was despatched against Minorca, which had belonged to England for fifty years. Admiral Byng was sent with

a small and badly-equipped fleet to relieve the island, but finding that the French fleet outnumbered his own, he judged it prudent to retire, and the island surrendered to the French.

The news was received in England with a howl of indignation. It began to be said that the English were a race of cowards and scoundrels, that the country was lost and the people were on the point of becoming slaves. Addresses were sent up to the king from all parts of the country praying for a strict inquiry into the causes of the disaster, and for the punishment of the admiral. Byng was tried by court-martial, condemned, and shot, to encourage other admirals to do their duty, as Voltaire ironically said. It was a cruel and unjust punishment, for Byng was, at the most, guilty of nothing worse than an error of judgment.

The condition of affairs brought to power a man who stands in the first rank of English statesmen. William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, was born in 1708. He was a grandson of a former governor of Madras. Educated at Eton and Oxford, he obtained a cornetcy in a cavalry regiment, and at the age of twenty-seven entered Parliament as a member for the decayed borough of Old Sarum. In Parliament he became one of the foremost among Walpole's young opponents, who called themselves "the patriots", but were dubbed "the boys" by Sir Robert. Pitt was so outspoken and so eloquent an opponent that Walpole said, "We must muzzle this young cornet of horse". He was deprived of his cornetcy, but at once obtained an appointment in the household of the Prince of Wales, who was in close alliance with the opponents of the government.

After Walpole's fall, Pitt continued his opposition to

the government, in particular protesting that the king and his minister, Lord Carteret, seemed to be treating England as though it were a province of Hanover. In this way Pitt made himself very offensive to the king.

In 1746 the then prime minister, Henry Pelham, wishing to give Pitt a place in the government, and being refused by the king, resigned. But he was so strongly supported in Parliament that George had to give way, and Pitt, after holding a subordinate office, became Paymaster of the Forces, a minister who had control of large sums of money, and was in a position to enrich himself. Other ministers had used their opportunities, and, according to the standard of public conduct at that time, were considered blameless. Pitt, however, though poor, steadily declined to avail himself of this source of wealth, accepting nothing more than his bare salary; and this scrupulous conduct laid the foundation of the unbounded confidence which the nation soon learnt to place in him.

Ten years later, Pitt's reputation was so high that, when disaster came, it was clear that he was the only man in whose hands the direction of affairs could be safely placed. In 1756, therefore, he became secretary of state and leader of the House of Commons, of which, by his matchless eloquence and his commanding abilities, he soon became absolute master. He immediately took steps to increase the army, and to establish a national militia; it was at this time that he enrolled the Highland regiments. He pleaded hard, though in vain, for mercy on the unfortunate Admiral Byng.

Pitt had a habit of making long speeches to the king, who said that, though they might be very fine, they were greatly beyond his comprehension. George so disliked his minister that in four months he dismissed him. But

so great was the general discontent that he was obliged to recall him within three months. "I am sure that I can save this country," said the minister, "and nobody else can." In this spirit of confidence did Pitt undertake to direct the great war in which his country was now engaged.

5. WILLIAM PITT.—II. CANADA.

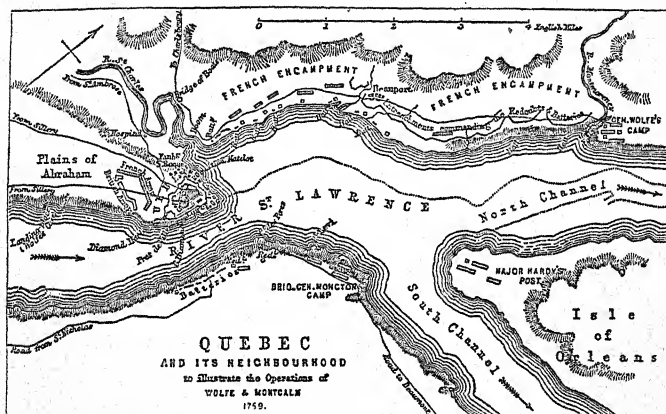
Now that Pitt had taken in hand to save his country, he began operations against France on a gigantic scale. Discarding his former objection to the payment of German troops with English money, he sent Frederick the Great both money and troops, the latter being placed under the command of Prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a general of uncommon ability. He also organized several small expeditions against various parts of the French coast, which served to divert part of the French forces from the more important operations in Germany. But it was the power of France in America that Pitt was determined to crush. He had the genius to discern the men most fitted to accomplish his design, and the power to inspire them with his own dauntless courage.

The next year was a year of triumphs—"the year of wonders", when, as a witty writer of the time said, men were forced to ask every morning what was the new victory, lest they should miss one.

At the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence lies the island of Cape Breton. Its capital, Louisburg, "the Gibraltar of Canada", had been captured from the French by the British colonists in 1745, but had been restored to France by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. In 1758 it was brilliantly retaken for England by two young officers,

Jeffrey Amherst and James Wolfe. A defeat at Ticonderoga, where Lord Howe, the young English general, was killed, was counterbalanced by the capture of Fort Duquesne, the name of which was changed in honour of Pitt to Pittsburg.

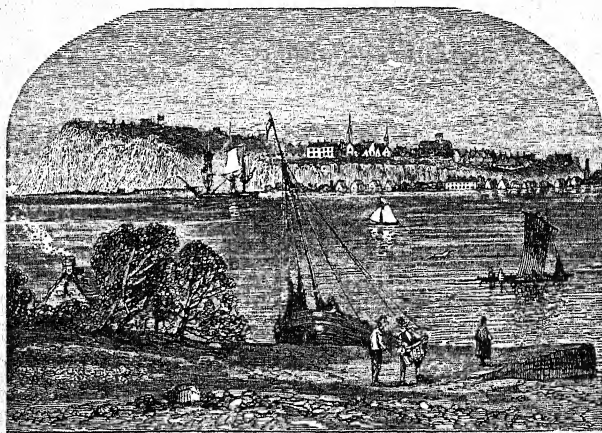
The crowning achievement, which destroyed the French



power in America and gave Canada to England, was the capture of Quebec. This great town, near the mouth of the St. Lawrence river, was held by the French, under the Marquis of Montcalm. General Wolfe was ordered to attempt its capture, while Amherst proceeded against Montreal, further up the river.

Quebec was strongly fortified and admirably defended: Wolfe's attempt to storm the French camp was repulsed, and a bombardment by the English fleet was equally futile. Then Wolfe planned an operation of singular daring. Behind the city, the ground ascended to a considerable height, forming a plateau known as the

Heights of Abraham, between which and the river that rolled below there rose rugged precipices sheer from the river-brink. On a dark September night the English troops were carried by the silent fleet from their camp on the Isle of Orleans to the foot of the precipices behind



Old View of Quebec.

Quebec, and landing there, they scaled the rocks with all speed and secrecy.

When the sun rose, Montcalm, looking from his intrenchments, saw an English army equal in size to his own drawn up in good order on the heights he had deemed unscalable. Recognizing the gravity of the situation, he ordered his men to advance to the attack. The English, who had no cavalry, and only one piece of ordnance, poured a steady fire into the French ranks, threw them into confusion, and charging in line drove them in headlong flight before them. At the moment of victory the brave Wolfe received three terrible wounds.

Being told as he lay on the ground that the French were in full retreat, he whispered with his last breath, "Now God be praised; I will die in peace." Montcalm, too, was struck by a ball during the retreat and died next day.

The war in America continued through the next year; but on September 8, 1760, Canada and all its dependencies were surrendered to the British crown, and French rule in North America was at an end.

Meanwhile in other quarters, on land and sea, victory after victory was crowning English arms. The island of Goree on the west coast of Africa, and Guadeloupe in the West Indies, fell to our fleets. At the great battle of Minden, Ferdinand of Brunswick won, by aid of his British troops, a victory, the brilliance of which was unhappily marred by the cowardice of one British cavalry officer, Lord George Sackville, who was promptly tried by court-martial and dismissed the service in disgrace. Near Lagos, off the Portuguese coast, Admiral Boscawen caught the French Mediterranean fleet, captured four ships and scattered the rest to the winds. At Quiberon Bay, near Brest, where the French Channel fleet lay among rocks and shallows, Admiral Hawke's fleet, led by Commodore Howe, dashed in among the enemy's vessels, and destroyed or captured the greater number of them. Such were the exploits which signalized Pitt's conduct of the war.

6. BEGINNINGS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

While France was being overcome in Europe and in America, the genius of Englishmen was ruining her power in India, and laying the foundations of the mighty

Indian empire of to-day. The English East India Company, founded in 1600, had three chief trading stations, Bombay on the west coast, Madras at the south-east, and Calcutta on the north-east. The French and the Dutch also had factories, and there was considerable jealousy



Indian Bearers carrying the Palanquin of a Native Prince.

among the representatives of the different nations. In 1746 Madras had been captured by the French, but it had been restored to the English by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle two years later.

The French station at Pondicherry, near Madras, was at this time governed by Dupleix, a man of much ability and ambition. It was his aim, by taking advantage of the constant struggles between the different native races, to secure French supremacy over the southern part of India. By the year 1751 he had succeeded in making himself master of almost the whole country, ruling

through the Nizam of the Deccan and the Nabob of the Carnatic, who owed their elevation to French victories over their rivals. It seemed as though English influence was on the verge of extinction, when a champion suddenly appeared in the person of a young clerk in the service of the Company.

Robert Clive, born in 1725 at Market Drayton in Shropshire, was as a boy the source of constant trouble to his parents and terror to the town. He would climb to the top of the church steeple and ride astraddle on a stone spout at that dizzy height. He formed a band of young ruffians, who broke the



Robert, Lord Clive.

windows of any shopkeeper that would not buy them off with apples and halfpence. So wild and such a dunce was he, that his parents were glad to ship him off to India at the age of eighteen. But desk-work was by no means to the taste of the young fellow. He had a share in the fighting in the year 1746; and when, in 1751, the tide of French success threatened to overwhelm the affairs of the Company, it was young Clive who proposed the daring plan for checking the schemes of Dupleix.

The man who was recognized by the English as Nabob of the Carnatic was at this time being besieged by his successful rival in Trichinopoli. Clive, in the absence of his superior officer, offered to lead a force against Arcot, the capital of the province, and thus draw away the besiegers from Trichinopoli. With an army of only 500 men—200 of whom were English, and the rest Sepoys—the intrepid officer set out. As they neared Arcot, a terrible thunderstorm broke upon them; and the garrison, struck with consternation as they saw the small attacking army press on in spite of lightning and rain, fled, leaving Clive to make unmolested his entrance into the town. Getting reinforcements, they soon returned some 3000 strong and encamped before the walls; but Clive issued from the gates at dead of night, took the Indians by surprise, and, without losing a man, drove the whole army away in flight.

Soon, however, a great horde of 10,000 men, including some French troops, came up from Trichinopoli, and Clive was in his turn besieged in Arcot. For fifty days he and his little force, reduced to about 300 men, maintained the defence, in spite of great difficulties, against these overwhelming odds. So devoted were the Sepoys that, when food ran short, they begged that the grains of rice might be given to the Englishmen: as for them, they said, they would be content with the water in which the rice had been boiled.

The gallant defence struck the besiegers with astonishment. They had had no idea that the English could fight! A large army of admiring Mahrattas, wild warriors from the north, gathered to assist Clive and his little band. The besiegers, hearing of the expected assistance, made a determined effort to storm the fort, but were driven

back with great loss; and then, disheartened by their failures, they raised the siege and fled.

This was the beginning of British supremacy in India. The natives began to believe that the English were better soldiers than the French; and when this first success was followed up by others, some of the native allies of the French came over to the English side, and the power of Dupleix was utterly demolished.

Returning to India in 1755 after a visit to his home, Clive was met by the news of terrible events at Calcutta. The Nabob of Bengal, a cruel tyrant named Surajah Dowlah, who coveted the wealth of the traders and hated the whole English race, had captured Calcutta, and taken prisoners a number of the English residents. One hundred and forty-six of these, including some ladies, were thrust into a small guard-room known as the Black Hole, and locked up there all night. It was summer, and the air was stiflingly hot; the room was low, only twenty feet square, and unventilated save for a small grating in the wall. Here, during that night, was fought a most terrible struggle for life, men and women trampling each other down in their efforts to get to the grating for air, and the little water that the mocking guards gave them. In the morning, only twenty-three wild and feeble creatures came out of the hole alive.

Clive at once set out with an army to avenge this barbarous cruelty, and within a few months had retaken Calcutta. Then he made peace with the Nabob, but finding him engaged in underhand dealings with the French, he determined to depose him, and to set one of the Nabob's officers, named Mir Jaffir, in his place. In pursuance of his plan, he felt it necessary to maintain an appearance of friendliness towards the Nabob, and

entered upon a course of intrigue, in which he proved himself more than a match for the Indians in their own cunning and guile. His action at length resulted in the great battle of Plassey, in which, on July 27, 1757, with a small army of 3000 men, 1000 of whom were English, he defeated Surajah Dowlah at the head of nearly 60,000 men. Mir Jaffir became Nabob, and loaded Clive with rich presents.

Clive remained in India three years longer, reducing the country to order; increasing his own wealth, and winning the awe-struck admiration and respect of the natives for the British name and character.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE THIRD.

(1760-1820.)

1. WILLIAM PITT.—III.

The last year of George II.'s reign saw Pitt at the height of his influence and fame. The "great commoner", as he was called, exercised unrivalled sway over the House of Commons; possessed in full the confidence and esteem of the nation; and was so feared on the Continent that the mere mention of his name was enough to silence a roomful of boasting Frenchmen. But the death of George II., and the accession of his grandson as George III., marked the beginning of Pitt's decline. The new king, a better though not an abler man than his immediate predecessors, had been brought up to expect a larger share of authority than recent English sovereigns had exercised. He was especially anxious to break the power of the great Whig families, who had practically been supreme for fifty years. He gave his chief confidence

at first to Lord Bute, a man of some ability and a favourite with George's mother, the Princess Dowager.

Early in the new reign Pitt became aware of a family compact between France and Spain which threatened to prove dangerous to England. He was anxious at once to declare war against Spain; but his colleagues in the ministry, which now included Lord Bute, were so much opposed to him that he resigned. Very soon after, Spain herself declared war against England. The English won brilliant victories in the East and West Indies, over both



George III., at the time of his Accession.

French and Spanish; captured Havana, the capital of Cuba; Manilla, the capital of the Philippine Islands; and seized vast quantities of treasure.

But Bute, the new prime minister, was eager for peace, and in 1763 the Peace of Paris was concluded, by which England restored several of the captured places to France and Spain, retaining Canada, Florida, and Minorca. The peace was very unpopular in England. Pitt, though

suffering severely from gout, went down to the House and delivered a vehement speech against it. Bute was hooted and even attacked in the streets, so that he hired a band of pugilists to protect him. But he secured the support of an old rival of Pitt, Henry Fox, who gained a majority for the peace by the lavish use of bribes. This Tory success was followed by the dismissal of hundreds of Whigs from the posts they held in the government offices.

The Bute ministry did not outlive the year. An unfair tax on cider caused such an outcry that Bute became terrified and resigned. The new minister, George Grenville, soon got into difficulties. The member for Aylesbury, a man of loose morals but considerable ability, named John Wilkes, had been writing, in his paper called *The North Briton*, a series of violent articles against the king and the government, and in No. 45, some sentences occurred which the king regarded as a personal insult. He insisted on Wilkes being prosecuted, and a general warrant was issued, ordering the arrest of the author, printers, and publishers of the paper, but mentioning no names. Wilkes was arrested, but his demand for release under a writ of Habeas Corpus was at once granted by the Chief Justice, who held that general warrants were illegal, and that Wilkes was also protected by the privilege of Parliament. Wilkes became very popular with the people, who, without admiring his character, regarded him as a champion of liberty. But later in the year his writings were censured by Parliament, and ordered to be burned, and Wilkes himself was expelled from the House.

Pitt was one of the strongest opponents of these arbitrary acts. But he had long been ill; and soon after the expulsion of Wilkes he withdrew from public

life to his country seat at Hayes, where he remained in seclusion. It was given out that his condition was serious, but some of his enemies asserted that his illness was a mere pretence. During his absence Grenville made a blunder which sowed the seed of a great disaster. He attempted to enforce more strictly the navigation laws under which the trade of the American colonies was carried on, increased the customs duties payable at the colonial ports, and passed a Stamp Act, levying a duty on stamped paper used in the colonies for trade bills and legal documents, and on the paper used for newspapers.



Edmund Burke.

His object was reasonable enough: he wished the colonies to bear a fair share of the expenses of the war undertaken in their behalf, and of the cost of their defence. But the colonists, who had already spent much money, were so irritated at the proceedings of the government that they refused to use the stamped paper, declared that they would not be taxed without their own consent, and determined to depend as much as possible on their own manufactures, instead of getting their goods from England.

The colonies were in this excited condition when the Grenville ministry fell. Pitt, invited by the king to undertake the management of affairs, made the great mistake of his life in declining. Lord Rockingham became prime minister, and one of his first proceedings was the repeal of the obnoxious Stamp Act. Pitt, whose health was now partially restored, strongly supported the repeal in a remarkable speech, in which he declared that England had no right to tax the colonies, and that he was glad they had resisted. The same side was taken by a young Irishman named Edmund Burke, who was Rockingham's secretary, and who became one of the most famous political writers of the age.

When Pitt left the House after the repeal had been carried, the waiting multitude threw their hats up, cheered again and again, and escorted him in triumph to his house. But though so well in agreement on this and other subjects with Rockingham, Pitt unhappily refused to join his ministry, which met with such strenuous opposition from a party who called themselves "the king's friends", that Rockingham was obliged to retire, after being in office only a year.

2. WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.—IV. WILKES AND LIBERTY.

Rockingham's nominal successor was the Duke of Grafton, but Pitt was the real head of the ministry. His position was exceedingly difficult, for, in his endeavour to form a ministry representing all parties, he brought together men who held different opinions, had no common bond of union, and, indeed, scarcely knew one another. Moreover, the office Pitt accepted for himself, that of

Lord Privy Seal, can only be held by a member of the House of Lords, and in becoming Earl of Chatham, Pitt lost almost all the influence he had exerted as the "great commoner". His new name was unfamiliar; his passionate oratory, so powerful in its effects on the crowded benches in the Commons, disturbed the serenity of the sparse and solemn audience in the upper house. A witty lord said that Pitt had had a bad fall upstairs, and would never be able to stand on his legs again.

His difficulties were increased by the peculiarities of his temper, doubtless due in great measure to his wretched health. He wanted all his own way, and would never consult with his colleagues. He formed great schemes for the better government of Ireland and for transferring the power of the East India Company to the crown, and the latter of these roused vehement opposition. Before many months had passed, Chatham, declaring himself ill, withdrew to Bath. On returning, after some weeks, to London, he refused to see the other ministers, even for five minutes, and declined an interview with the king. For nearly two years this strange conduct continued, during which Grafton led the ministry; and then Chatham resigned.

Meanwhile the case of John Wilkes had been causing fresh excitement. Returning from Paris, whither he had fled after fighting a duel, Wilkes was elected member for Middlesex, but was sentenced to pay a fine and suffer imprisonment for the libel he had formerly published. No fewer than three times the Commons voted his expulsion from the House, but he was immediately re-elected. At the third re-election, the Commons declared that his opponent had gained the seat, though Wilkes had beaten him by an enormous majority. The government became

more and more unpopular. Chatham, returning to public life, raised strong but ineffectual protests against the illegal action of the Commons. An unknown writer, who called himself Junius, published letter after letter, attacking the government with all the virulence of his powerful pen.

In 1770, Grafton resigned, and Lord North, a witty, good-tempered and business-like man, became prime minister. He made it his chief object to carry out the wishes of the king, even though he disapproved of them, with the result that, during his twelve years' administration, many unwise and unjust things were done.

In 1771, eight printers were arrested, at the Speaker's order, for publishing in their newspapers reports of the parliamentary debates. These reports were not furnished by men who actually heard and took down the speeches of members, for no reporters were allowed in the House. Clever writers put together short fragments they picked up by hearsay, or from friendly members, and worked them up into rhetorical accounts of what they imagined the speakers might or should have said. Thus the reported speeches were usually inaccurate, and sometimes gave false impressions; indeed, one writer, the great Dr. Johnson, a firm Tory, confessed that in the reports he wrote he took care that the "Whig dogs" had the worst of it.

The arrest of the printers was designed to put a stop to the circulation of these imaginative reports. But two of them, appealing to the Lord Mayor of London, were brought before the court of aldermen, of which John Wilkes was one. They were discharged from custody, and the Speaker's messenger was arrested for interfering with the liberties of the citizens, whereupon the Lord

Mayor was sent to the Tower by the Commons. But his stand for civil liberty made him so popular that, when he was released, after six weeks' imprisonment, the city was illuminated in his honour.

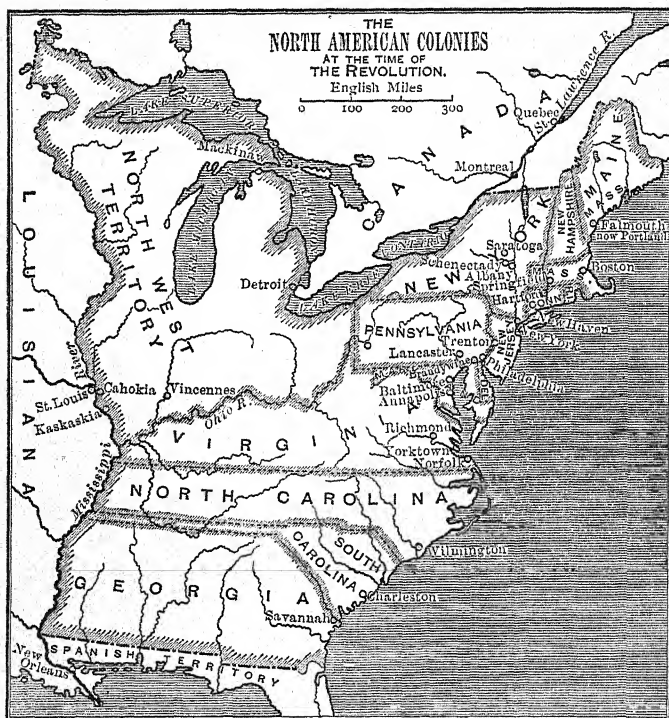
The upshot of the affair was that no further proceedings were taken, and since that time parliamentary reporting has been done without interference. More newspapers were soon started, such as the *Times* in 1785, and the nation obtained valuable opportunities of educating itself in political affairs.

In all these affairs, Chatham was thoroughly on the side of liberty, and it was in great part due to his influence that, in 1774, the Commons allowed Wilkes to take his seat for Middlesex. In 1782, they acknowledged the injustice they had done him by expunging from the Journals of the House the records of all the arbitrary proceedings relating to the case.

3. WILLIAM PITT, EARL OF CHATHAM.—V. THE AMERICAN COLONIES.

Meanwhile the government had begun a course of action which resulted in the loss of our American colonies. Towards the end of Grafton's administration, customs duties had been levied at the colonial ports on glass, paper, tea, and a few other articles. The new duties met with a vigorous resistance, and much ill-feeling was caused among the colonists by the arrival of reinforcements of British troops in Boston, the chief port. When Lord North took office, he tried to smooth the difficulties away by removing all the duties except that on tea, which, though it brought in a very paltry sum, he resolved to retain because the king wished to

insist on his absolute right to tax the colonies. The colonists were fairly content with the new arrangement, but an event occurred which caused a renewal of the quarrel.



In 1773, to compensate the East India Company for a limitation of its powers, an act was passed enabling it to export tea to America from England free of duty at the English ports. The tea could thus be sold in America at a low price; but the Americans, far from regarding this as a benefit, considered the arrangement

a trick for increasing the proceeds of the tea tax. Accordingly, two ships lying in Boston harbour with cargoes of tea were boarded by some young men disguised as Red Indians, who broke open the tea-chests and threw their contents into the sea.

This determined action showed the British government that it must either give up the tax or put down resistance by force of arms. Burke used all his eloquence to recommend the former course. Chatham did the same, declaring that England had no right under heaven to tax people who were not directly represented in Parliament. But the king, the ministers, and the nation at large were profoundly ignorant of colonial affairs, and were determined to punish the "insolence" of the colonies.



General Washington.

Acts were passed to close the port of Boston, to suspend the charter granting self-government to Massachusetts, and to bring political offenders to England to be tried. Such measures were naturally regarded in the colonies as a declaration of war.

The American colonies met in congress and made preparations for resistance. At the skirmish of Lexington and the storming of Bunker's Hill their militia proved no unworthy opponents of the British troops. All the colonies, unlike as some of them were in origin and character, were united in their opposition to Britain.

They intrusted the command of their troops to George Washington, a Virginian gentleman of stainless character and simple life, who had formerly fought against the French. By dint of courage and unexampled patience, Washington overcame all difficulties, and kept together an army which, though inferior to the British troops, he so handled as to secure ultimate success.

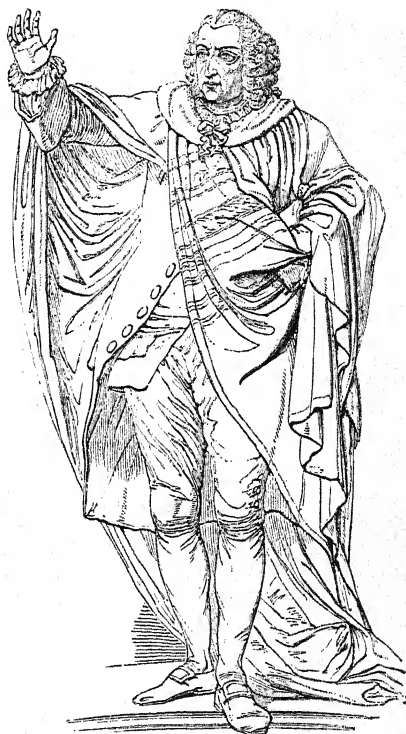
Meanwhile Chatham had been exerting all his influence to put a stop to the troubles, but in vain. England at first despised, because she was ignorant of, the resources of the colonies, and the generals sent out by Lord North were unluckily inferior in ability to Washington. In 1776 the colonies were much encouraged by the withdrawal of General Howe and the British troops from Boston. Their irritation against the mother country was increased by the employment of German troops in the British army, and at length they resolved to sever themselves altogether from her. Accordingly, on July 4, 1776, Congress signed the Declaration of Independence, asserting that "the United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states".

Chatham, early in 1777, made another effort to bring the struggle to an end. In proposing in the House of Lords that the war should be stopped, he said: "You may ravage, you cannot conquer. It is impossible. You cannot conquer the Americans. I might as well talk of driving them before me with my crutch." He pleaded for the removal of the grievances of which the colonies complained, saying: "This will be the herald of peace; this will open the way for treaty." But he spoke to deaf ears, and the war was continued.

In the open field the colonial forces were, as a rule, no match for the British troops, but Washington skilfully

took advantage of every tactical slip made by the opposing generals. Soon the British General Burgoyne was compelled to surrender with his whole army at Saratoga, and then, in response to the request of the States, France openly joined them in the struggle. Some of the English ministers, fearing the consequences of this alliance, now became anxious for peace, and the Duke of Richmond, on April 7, 1778, moved an address to the king, asking him to withdraw the troops from America and acknowledge the independence of the States.

Chatham, dreadfully ill, wrapped in flannels and supported on crutches, went to the House of Lords to oppose the motion; for, while taking the side of the colonies on the question of taxation, he was passionately opposed to their independence. Rising in his place, the great earl in a few halting words, scarcely heard in spite of the respectful silence



Statue of Chatham in the Abbey.

of the assembly, protested against the "dismemberment of this ancient and most noble monarchy".

"The Duke of Richmond replied with great tenderness and courtesy; but while he spoke, the old man was observed to be restless and irritable. The duke sat down. Chatham stood up again, pressed his hand on his breast, and sank down in an apoplectic fit. Three or four lords who sat near him caught him in his fall. The House broke up in confusion. The dying man was carried to the residence of one of the officers of Parliament, and was so far restored as to be able to bear a journey to Hayes. At Hayes, after lingering a few weeks, he expired in his seventieth year."¹

The great statesman was buried with pomp in Westminster Abbey. His debts were paid by Parliament, and a pension was voted to his heirs. Though during his last years he lacked the power and influence he had once had, the whole nation united to honour the memory of the statesman who had done it such noble service. Chatham had faults, but no statesman was ever more upright in public and private life. One of his greatest virtues was courage. It was said that no one could enter his presence without coming away a braver man. And his statue in the Abbey, as Lord Macaulay says, "seems still, with eagle face and outstretched arm, to bid England be of good cheer, and to hurl defiance at her foes".

4. END OF THE WAR.—THE SECOND PITT.—I.

The war dragged on for two years without striking incident save the hanging of Major André, an able English officer, who was captured by the Americans while

¹ Macaulay.

conducting negotiations, between his commander-in-chief and a traitorous American officer, for the surrender of the forts on the Hudson river. In 1779 Spain joined in the alliance against England, and was followed in 1781 by the Dutch, and it seemed as though this country would be pitted against the world.

On October 17, 1781, Lord Cornwallis, with his entire army, surrendered to Washington at Yorktown, a disaster due to the fact that the Americans were well supported by a French fleet, which was far superior to the English fleet then



Charles James Fox.

in American waters. This was practically the end of the war on land. On sea the British were equally unsuccessful. One after another of the West Indian islands fell into the hands of the French, and in Europe Minorca was captured, while Gibraltar was closely besieged, and seemed on the point of being taken.

Lord North had for some time been anxious to resign office. He was not only subject to the constant attacks of a powerful opposition, which included men like Burke and Charles James Fox, but he was himself opposed to the continuance of the war, and only the entreaties of

the king had prevented him from resigning before. "It is all over!" was his exclamation when he heard of the surrender at Yorktown; and when, five months later, news arrived of the capture of Minorca, nothing would induce him to remain longer in office.



Admiral Rodney.

Lord Rockingham then became prime minister for the second time; the American war was immediately stopped, but the contest with France and Spain was continued with a vigour soon rewarded with success.

In the West Indies Admiral Rodney, by skilful manœuvring, won a brilliant victory over the French

fleet, and regained for Britain the command of the seas. In Europe the splendid defence of Gibraltar by General Elliott added a new page to the long record of victories won by British pluck and determination. The fortress had been besieged for three years, and had been relieved once in 1781 by Rodney. In 1782, however, the French and Spanish made a tremendous joint attack, pouring a hot fire into the fortress from their artillery on the land side and from floating batteries on the sea. Elliott met the assault with showers of red-hot balls, which set

the batteries on fire and destroyed many of the ships of the French fleet. The attack was decisively repulsed, and the gallant defenders were soon relieved, Admiral Lord Howe bringing them provisions and reinforcements.

The war was brought to an end in 1783, when treaties were signed at Versailles. The independence of the American colonies was acknowledged, and one or two places of minor importance were restored to France.

Meanwhile changes had been taking place in the government. Lord Rockingham died suddenly, and two unstable ministries followed in rapid succession. At the end of the year people were amazed to hear that the king had chosen for his prime minister a young man only twenty-four years old, William Pitt, the second son of the late Earl of Chatham. When his appointment was announced in the House of Commons, there was a burst of mocking laughter, and men joked about "a kingdom trusted to a school-boy's care". But the young man proved himself a statesman of the very first rank, whose wisdom and calm courage in times of the greatest difficulty kept England safe amid the storms of revolution and war; and who, by making her in very truth mistress of the seas, made her also mistress of the commerce of the world.

The opposition to Pitt in the Commons was at first so strong that he was beaten again and again. But, supported by the king, he held firmly to his post until he saw that the time had come for a general election. The new Parliament, which met in 1784, gave him a magnificent majority, and he soon became more powerful and more thoroughly trusted by king, parliament, and nation than any minister since Walpole.

His attention was first occupied by Indian affairs;¹

¹ See page 172.

then he devoted himself to domestic matters. He reduced the customs duties on many articles, and arranged a masterly treaty with France, which improved the trade between the two countries, and by checking smuggling helped to increase the revenue. He also devised an ingenious scheme for reducing the National Debt, but this was prevented from meeting with all the success it deserved by the foreign complications in which England became involved through the French Revolution.

5. THE SECOND PITT.—II. WAR WITH FRANCE.

The year 1789 witnessed the beginning of one of the most remarkable movements in the world's history—the French Revolution. Only a few of the many causes of this great revolution can be mentioned here. While the people of England had for centuries enjoyed a freedom which became ever wider and stronger with time, the people of France, less fortunate, had remained in the fetters of the feudal system. All power was in the hands of the privileged classes, the nobility and the clergy. Places in the church, the army, and the government were not open to the common people, who paid heavy taxes from some of which the nobles were exempt, and who paid also ruinous tithes to a corrupt and slothful clergy. There was so much corruption in the collection of the taxes that not a fourth part of the money collected ever reached the state treasury. Heavy duties on goods paralysed trade, and industrial progress was rendered impossible by a system which compelled the peasant land-holders to work without pay on the lands of their lords.

Keen observers had long foreseen the general uprising

that could not but result from this condition of things, and French statesmen had made efforts to bring about reforms. But the privileged classes resisted all changes



William Pitt.

which would diminish their power, and all attempts at reform failed. At length the people took things into their own hands, abolished privileges and tithes, seized the property of the Church, and made personal merit the only qualification for place and power.

The passions of a long-oppressed people were now let

loose; mob rule became the order of the day. The Paris mob seized the Bastille, the great state prison; the country houses of the nobles were pillaged and burnt; the king, Louis XVI., became practically a prisoner in the hands of the people. The nobility fled for help to neighbouring states; Austria and Prussia sent armies to their assistance, only to withdraw before the eager soldiers who sprang up all over France to fight for liberty. A republic was proclaimed, but its foundation was stained with cruel deeds of violence, among which the trial and execution of the king and queen thrilled Europe with horror.

The first proceedings of the revolutionists excited a burst of enthusiasm in England. But their excesses and the perils to which they might lead were at once perceived by Edmund Burke, who warned his countrymen against them in a book of great brilliance and power. Pitt was at first anxious to maintain a neutral attitude, and to go on with the schemes he had in hand for effecting reforms at home. But revolution societies sprang up, adopting the dangerous maxims of the wildest of the revolutionists: "All kings are tyrants; all ministers corrupt; all priests hypocrites; all rule is slavery; the rich are the natural enemies of the poor". It seemed likely that revolution would overturn all the states of Europe, and when the French republic offered assistance to any nation which would rise against its king, Pitt saw that war was inevitable. The declaration of war, however, actually came from France, in 1793.

As a war minister, Pitt was unfortunate on land, the British troops, under generals of no great ability or experience, at first suffering defeats. On sea, however, there was a different tale to tell. The navy was in a most efficient condition, with well-trained men, and



Nelson boarding the *San Josef* at the Battle of St. Vincent, 1797.

officers of genius. Admiral Lord Hood burnt a French fleet at Toulon; and off Ushant, on the "glorious first of June", 1794, Lord Howe encountered a French fleet equal in size to his own, and won a magnificent victory, burning one French ship and capturing six.

By and by the French formed a plan for uniting their fleet with those of Spain and Holland. But off Cape St. Vincent, in 1797, Admiral Jervis, assisted by Commodore Nelson, who bore the brunt of the action, made short work of the Spanish fleet; and Admiral Duncan routed the Dutch fleet off Camperdown, on their own coast. Such victories as these established the supremacy of the British navy, a thing of immense importance, for it not only secured the British colonies from foreign conquest, and protected British trade, but it enabled Britain to capture the colonies of her enemies. In this war Trinidad was taken from Spain, and Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch, and the whole of the French colonies in the East and West Indies were captured.

Want of success on land, the heavy expenses of the war, and the disturbance of trade that it caused, made Pitt desirous of peace. But the French were so elated with their victories, and so confident in the fine army which the genius of the republican generals had created, that they refused to give up their hold on Belgium, which Pitt insisted on as the first condition.

At this time, a young Corsican officer in the French army, named Napoleon Bonaparte, was displaying a military genius that dazzled Europe. Ambitious of becoming ruler of France, but seeing that his time was not yet come, he devised a great scheme for capturing Egypt and Constantinople, with the idea of proceeding

to India, and regaining French ascendancy there. In 1798 he led an expedition for this purpose, on the way captured Malta from a military order called the Knights of St. John, and arrived at Alexandria.

But Nelson, the hero of St. Vincent, went after him in hot pursuit. The French ships, seventeen in number, that had brought the French army to Egypt, were drawn up in a line across Aboukir Bay, in such a position that they were defended by batteries on shore, and the ships of the enemy would find it difficult to approach them by reason of the surrounding rocks and shallows. But Nelson, declaring that wherever there was sea-room for a French ship there was room for an English one too, divided his fleet of twelve ships into two divisions, one of which he sent between the French fleet and the shore, while the other attacked it on the seaward side. Thus placed between two fires, the French fleet was utterly defeated, only four out of the seventeen ships escaping burning or capture. By this great victory, Nelson, who was wounded during the fight, shut up Bonaparte's army in Egypt, and, by cutting it off from France, prevented the accomplishment of his grand scheme for ruining our empire in India.

6. THE SECOND PITT.—III. THE UNION WITH IRELAND.

Meanwhile Pitt was engaged with important affairs at home. Ireland then had a parliament of its own, but until 1782 it had been unable to pass any measures, even such as seemed necessary for the good of the country, without the sanction of the British Parliament. In that year, after a long agitation in which Henry Grattan bore

a prominent part, it received much more freedom, and the country gained, among other things, the right to trade with foreign countries and with the British colonies. But only Protestants could be elected members of Parliament, which was manifestly unjust when by far the greater part of the nation was Roman Catholic. Moreover, the actual power was entirely in the hands of England, while the Catholic Irish were irritated at having to pay heavy and unfair rents to Protestant landlords, and tithes to the Protestant clergy, whose churches they never attended.

The French Revolution created great excitement in Ireland, and a society was formed calling itself the United Irishmen, and consisting of Catholics and republican Protestants, who invited the French to help them to throw off their subjection to England. An expedition was sent from France in 1796 under the famous general Lazare Hoche; but being met and scattered by storms, the French fleet put back, and the design of a French invasion was given up. But a rebellion broke out in Ireland in 1798, only to be crushed at the battle of Vinegar Hill.

The time was now come, Pitt believed, for joining Britain and Ireland under one Parliament, and for doing away with many of the grievances of which the Irish complained. His scheme was to abolish the Irish Parliament, and bring members to represent Ireland in the Parliament at Westminster; to admit Roman Catholics to Parliament; to abolish the tithes by paying a lump sum to the Protestant clergy, and to make grants for the support of the Catholic clergy. The union of the Parliaments was the first step toward the achievement of the rest of the scheme; accordingly, a bill was introduced

into the Irish Parliament for bringing about its abolition.

The bill was rejected, partly because the Irish still wished to manage their own affairs at home, and partly because the Irish members were practically the servants of the men who owned the boroughs which returned them, and who derived great power and profit from their position. These men Pitt set about bringing over to his side by means of bribes. Money, honours, and titles were bestowed upon them; they received more



Horatio, Viscount Nelson.

than £1,000,000 in direct compensation for the loss of their privileges; and in this way the opposition was overborne, and a majority was gained for Pitt's proposal. The Irish Parliament abolished itself, and the Parliament which met at Westminster in January, 1801, comprised members from England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Naturally, a large number of the Irish people detested the means used to bring about the Union. But Pitt used the only means in his power—means, too, which, corrupt

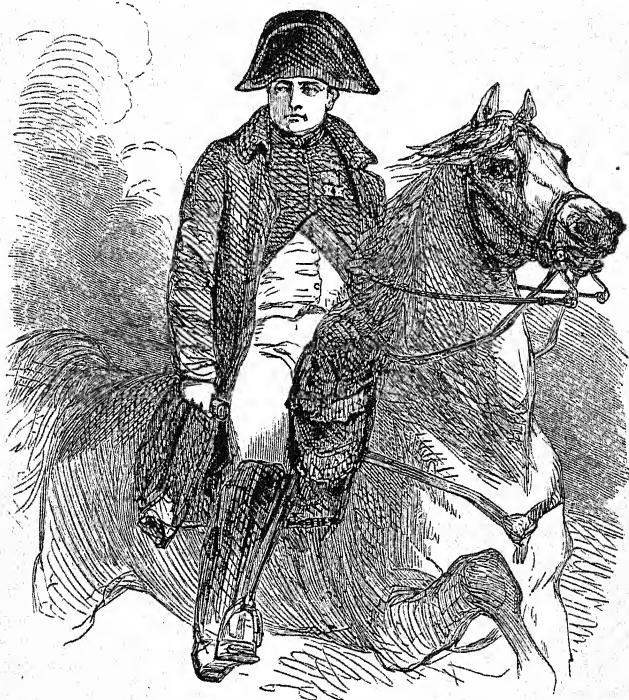
as they were, were not more corrupt than the whole Irish parliamentary system. Unhappily, when he came to deal with the other questions he had proposed for settlement, he met with the determined opposition of the king. George was convinced that to allow Roman Catholics to sit in Parliament would be contrary to his coronation oath, in which he had vowed to maintain the Protestant religion. Nothing that his ministers said was able to show him his mistake; and Pitt, finding it impossible to secure the passing of the measures he had promised, honourably resigned. The resentment and indignation felt by the Irish for what they considered British treachery has never died away.

7. THE SECOND PITT.—IV. NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

When Bonaparte found himself shut up by Nelson in Egypt, he overturned the government of the Sultan of Turkey, and set up a native Egyptian government. But he met with a severe check at Acre, where the Turks, aided by Sir Sidney Smith and a small British force, held the town in spite of all his efforts to take it. Escaping soon after to France, Bonaparte drew up a new constitution, had himself named First Consul, and in the battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden crushed the opposition of Britain's allies on the Continent.

In 1801, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark were planning to unite their fleets against Britain, with whom they had quarrelled over a question of the rights of neutral vessels. Their scheme was frustrated by the victory of Nelson in the terrible naval battle of Copenhagen. The same year the British captured Malta, and won a victory over the French in Egypt, and next year both England and

France were willing to make peace. The Treaty of Amiens was signed, by which England agreed to give up all her conquests, except Ceylon and Trinidad, and to



Napoleon.

drop the title "King of France" which the proclamations of English kings had borne since the time of Edward III.

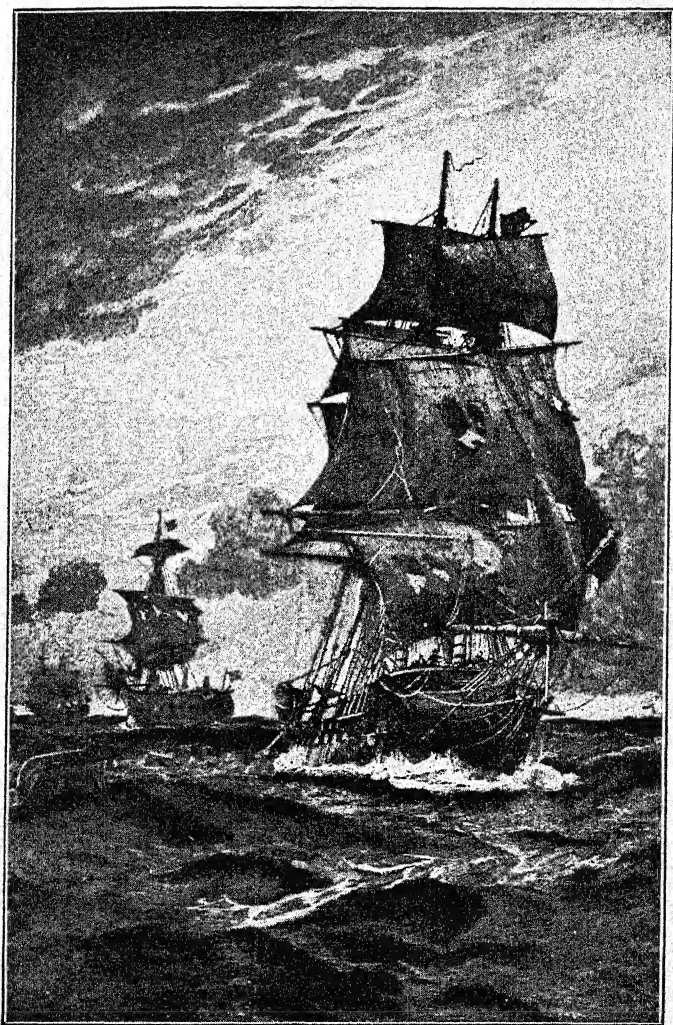
But the peace was of short duration. Bonaparte violated the treaty by seizing Piedmont and Elba; while England refused to give back Malta to the Knights of

St. John, believing that the island would come into the possession of France. French vessels were seized by the English, and Bonaparte ordered the seizure of all English merchants and travellers in French dominions. The result of all this was a renewal of the war in 1803, which brought Pitt back to office in place of the weak minister who had succeeded him.

Then Bonaparte had himself crowned Emperor of the French, and planned an invasion of England. He collected an army of 167,000 men at Boulogne, provided a fleet of flat-bottomed boats to transport them to England, and sought to obtain command of the Channel, so that his troops might cross in safety. There was great excitement in England. The militia and the yeomanry were called out, and 300,000 men speedily volunteered to bear arms for their country's defence.

Meanwhile, Napoleon, intending to unite the fleets of France and Spain and sweep the Channel clear of British vessels, as a first step sent his admiral to the West Indies, to decoy Nelson from British waters and then slip back to Europe. The attempt was made, but Nelson kept close in pursuit of the French; and when Villeneuve, the French admiral, returned to Europe, and was joined by the Spanish fleet, he thought it prudent to retreat to Cadiz instead of making for the Channel.

There he remained for three months until, on October, 21, 1805, Nelson enticed him out, and fought the great battle of Trafalgar. With twenty-seven vessels, arranged in two lines, Nelson attacked the combined fleet of thirty-three, and by masterly seamanship and hard fighting succeeded in sinking or capturing no fewer than twenty. The hero was killed by a bullet as he stood on the deck of his ship, *The Victory*; but his signal, "England expects



The "Euryalus" towing the "Royal Sovereign" after the Battle of Trafalgar.
From the painting by Chevalier Edwardo de Martino, by permission of Messrs. Hildesheimer & Co.

every man to do his duty", will ring for ever in the ears of his countrymen. Trafalgar assured Britain's mastery of the sea, secured her colonies from invasion, and enabled her merchants to ply their trade in safety in every quarter of the globe.

Before Trafalgar was fought, the danger of a French invasion was over, for Austria and Russia had formed an alliance with England, and Napoleon had broken up his camp at Boulogne to attack the Austrians. At Ulm he compelled the wretched General Mack to surrender with 30,000 fine troops, and at Austerlitz he inflicted a crushing defeat on the Russians and Austrians combined.

These disasters gave Pitt his death-blow. Always delicate, his labours had made him old before his time, and the failure of his efforts against Napoleon affected him deeply. Seeing a map of Europe on the wall at his house at Putney, as he returned from a visit to Bath, he said: "Roll up that map; it will not be wanted these ten years". Thus he recognized to what changes the ambition of Napoleon would lead. On January 23, 1806, the statesman died, with his last breath murmuring, "Oh, my country, how I leave my country!" Worthy son of a noble father, he too found in the Abbey a resting-place among England's illustrious dead.

8. THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

During these years stirring events had taken place in India. Three years after Clive's great victory over Surajah Dowlah at Plassey, Sir Eyre Coote at Wandewash defeated a French army. From that time the French power in India dwindled away until it disappeared. The English East India Company became the virtual

ruler of large tracts of India, and for several years Lord Clive was practically governor of the country. After his return to England, great abuses arose, and the natives



Warren Hastings.

suffered much distress from the extortion of the Company's officials, and also from famine. In 1772, Warren Hastings, who had fought at Plassey, became Governor of Bengal, and by his able administration succeeded in bringing order to the distressed country.

In 1774, a *Regulating Act* was passed by the British Parliament, placing Indian affairs under a Governor-General, assisted by a council of five members. The plan at first worked badly, for one of the council, Sir Philip Francis, continually thwarted Hastings, the first Governor-General. But Francis after a time returned to England, and Hastings was able to act with more freedom. He curbed the power of the Mahrattas, a warlike native race, and Sir Eyre Coote defeated Hyder Ali, the blood-thirsty sultan of Mysore, at Porto Novo.

In carrying out his spirited policy, Hastings used questionable means to raise the vast sums of money required to meet his expenses; and after his return to England, he was impeached for his conduct. The trial began in 1785, and lasted for seven years, because the House of Lords, which acted as judge, only sat for a few days each session to hear the case. The prosecution was conducted with great vigour and brilliance by Fox and Burke, but in the end Hastings was acquitted. His trial had the good effect of directing public attention to Indian affairs, and of bringing about a purer system of government.

Statesmen saw that for a mere trading company to hold such vast powers in India was certain to cause trouble, and in 1783 Fox brought in a bill, framed by Burke, to take the political government from the East India Company and place it in the hands of commissioners. Good as the scheme itself was, certain of its details caused its rejection by the House of Lords. Next year Pitt brought in and passed a similar bill, which established a Board of Control for India. By this measure the East India Company retained its commercial powers, and the right of nominating the Governor-General

and the Commander-in-Chief; but political affairs were directed by the members of the Board in England. The rights of the natives were protected against the greed and injustice of the traders, and much good was done for India by the able Governors, Lord Cornwallis and Lord Mornington.

In 1799 there were further troubles in India, due to the support given and promised by Bonaparte to native princes who were opposed to English rule. One of these princes, Tippoo Sahib, refused to receive a British mission intended to counteract French influence; but he was slain at the siege of his capital, Seringapatam, which was taken by assault by Sir David Baird. In this siege Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, distinguished himself; and when war soon after broke out with the Mahratta chiefs, Wellesley was placed by his brother, Lord Mornington, the Governor-General, in command of one of the British armies. With 4500 men he totally defeated a Mahratta army of 30,000 at Assaye; and other victories that followed crushed the power of the native chiefs, led to a great extension of British territory, and assured British supremacy in India.

9. THE PENINSULAR WAR.—WELLINGTON.

The death of Pitt brought about a change of ministry, Grenville becoming prime minister, though Charles James Fox was the leading spirit in the ministry, until his death a few months later. An attempt was made to bring the war to a close, but without success. Napoleon, winning victory after victory on the Continent, at length reduced all his enemies there to submission, and Britain was left to carry on the struggle single-handed.

At the end of 1806 Napoleon issued his famous Berlin Decree, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade, and forbidding all trade between them and France or her allies. The British government replied by measures which had the effect of stopping the trade of neutral countries with France. Napoleon had no fleet to enforce his decree, and when it was known that he was about to seize the Danish fleet, England sent ships and troops to Denmark to demand the placing of the fleet in British hands until the end of the war. A refusal was met by the bombardment of Copenhagen, and after four days the Danish fleet and stores were surrendered.

In the same year the island of Heligoland, at the mouth of the Elbe, was captured; and it remained a British possession until a few years ago, when it was handed over to Germany in return for concessions in East Africa.

In 1807 Napoleon carried war into Portugal, because that country had ignored his decree, and admitted British trade. Taking advantage of disturbances and insurrections in Spain, he then set up his brother Joseph as king at Madrid. Joseph had proved an excellent King of Naples, but the proud Spaniards resented the placing over them of a foreigner and an upstart, and the whole nation rebelled. Unable to defeat the French in the open field, they carried on a damaging guerilla warfare in the mountains, and succeeded in driving Joseph from Madrid.

Next year a British force was despatched to aid Portugal, under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley, the victor of Assaye. He defeated the French at Rolica, and again at Vimiero; but was then replaced by superior officers from England, who concluded at Cintra a convention allowing the French to leave Portugal with their

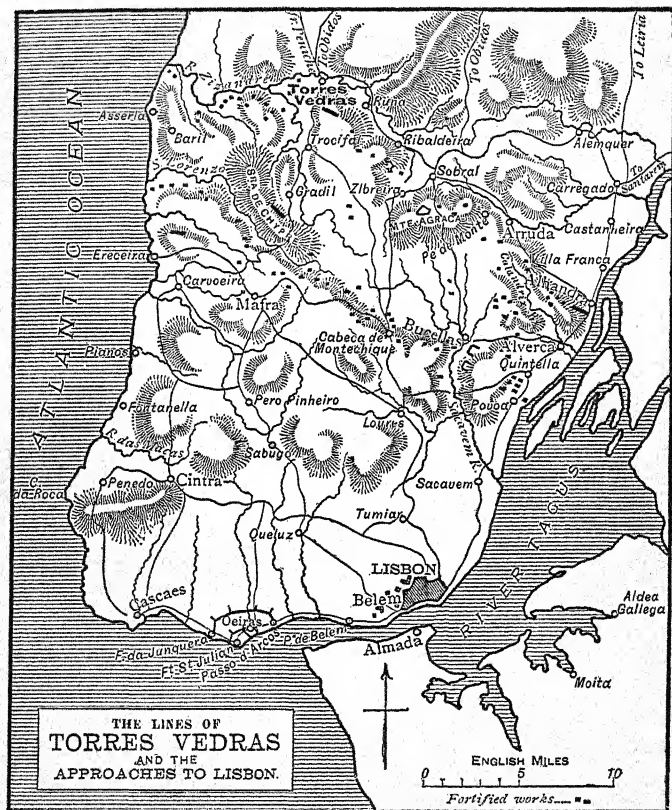
arms and plunder, and even agreeing to convey them to France in British ships. These ridiculous terms granted to a beaten enemy roused much indignation in England, and the officers responsible for them were recalled.

Napoleon then entered Spain in person, and inflicted severe defeats on the Spaniards. Sir John Moore, the general in command of the British troops, seeing that to fight against the overwhelming numbers opposed to him would be hopeless, conducted a masterly retreat to Corunna on the coast, repulsing with great loss the attacks of two of Napoleon's marshals, Soult and Ney. Just before the troops embarked in safety, the brave general was killed.

In 1809 Wellesley was again sent to Portugal to carry on the war against Napoleon on a larger scale. He drove Marshal Soult from Oporto, joined the Spanish general, and at Talavera held his position against all the assaults of Marshal Victor. Then, however, he was compelled to retreat, owing to the failure of the Spaniards to keep up his supplies. For his brilliant campaign he was rewarded with the title of Viscount Wellington, three years later became marquis, and in 1814 was raised to the highest dignity in the British peerage, with the title of duke.

Next year Napoleon sent Marshal Massena, one of his most trusted generals, to conduct the war. Wellington kept him in check while he completed three extensive lines of earthworks and fortifications, known as the Lines of Torres Vedras. After defeating the French at the battle of Busaco, he withdrew his whole force within these lines, and for six months defied all the attempts of Massena to break through. He had instructed the Portuguese to get in their harvests, and bring their stores

within the lines, so that Massena could obtain but scanty provisions for his troops, while the British were well



supplied from their ships. Thus Massena was at last compelled to retreat, after losing 30,000 men. This splendid achievement was the turning-point of the war,

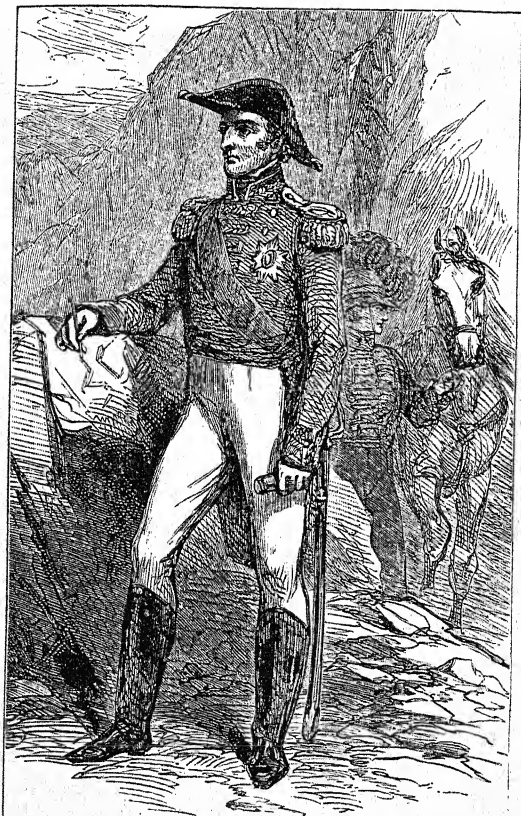
and showed the world that in Wellington England possessed a military genius of a high order.

The battles of Fuentes de Onoro and of Albuera, in 1811, were important chiefly on account of the impression they made on the French soldiers. At Albuera the British captured a hill from which they had once been driven, pressing on against great odds, and losing all but 1800 men out of the 6000 engaged. Such valour as this, which turned defeat into victory, astonished the French, who never afterwards went to battle with the same self-confidence. This impression of British pluck was deepened next year by the storming of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, two strong fortresses, and by the battle of Salamanca, where Wellington utterly defeated Marshal Marmont.

Wellington was now confident of his power to drive the French out of Spain. At Vittoria, in 1813, he inflicted a terrible defeat on them, capturing 100 guns, immense treasure, and vast booty they had wrested from the Spaniards. Taking in succession the fortresses of San Sebastian and Pampeluna, Wellington planned an invasion of France, crossed the frontier, drove Soult before him, and defeated him at Toulouse.

Meanwhile Napoleon had led a huge army into Russia, and reached Moscow; but the Russians burnt their city, and the French emperor, compelled to retreat in the depth of winter, escaped with only the wreck of his magnificent host. His enemies closed round him; he faced them with undaunted energy, and in three pitched battles routed them; but at Leipzig he suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of the allied Austrians, Prussians, and Russians. A few months later, ten days before the battle of Toulouse, the allies captured Paris and forced

Napoleon to abdicate. He was allowed to retire to the island of Elba, and the crown of France was given to



Arthur Wellesley, first Duke of Wellington.

Louis XVIII., brother of the Louis XVI. beheaded in 1793.

10. WAR WITH AMERICA.—NAPOLEON.—WATERLOO.

As mentioned in the last chapter, the measures taken by the British government, in answer to Napoleon's Berlin decrees, led to war between England and America, the Americans being naturally irritated at the checks imposed on their trade. The war spirit among them was so strong that hostilities were begun, though the obnoxious orders had been withdrawn by the British government. A section of the Americans was eager to annex Canada to the States, but the loyalty and the spirited resistance of the Canadians, both French and British, soon showed that any such idea was an idle dream.

At first the successes fell mainly to the Americans, who had an excellent navy, consisting of new ships manned with well-trained seamen and marines, many of whom were British seamen who had deserted, or had been pressed into the American service. The British ships first sent out to contend against them were old and leaky hulks, so unseaworthy that when they became prizes of the Americans they were burnt as useless. The most famous incident of the war was the duel between the American *Chesapeake* and the British *Shannon*, when the *Chesapeake* was captured after a fight of only fifteen minutes.

On land, fighting on a small scale went on along the Canadian frontier. At length the Americans suffered a severe defeat at Bladensburg. Washington, their capital, was occupied by the British, who burnt the Capitol and many other public buildings. The British in turn were repulsed at New Orleans; but in the meantime a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent,

which left unsettled all the questions that had led to this miserable war.

Affairs in Europe were meanwhile engaging the attention of a congress, which sat for nearly a year at Vienna. Its deliberations were interrupted by the news that Napoleon had suddenly left Elba, landed in France, and, being well received by his old soldiers, had entered Paris in triumph. He was at once declared a public enemy, and the states of Europe entered into an alliance against him, with the object of invading France from all sides. England and Prussia were first in the field, Wellington commanding in Belgium a force of British, Belgians, and Hanoverians, while Marshal Blucher marched to his assistance with a Prussian army.

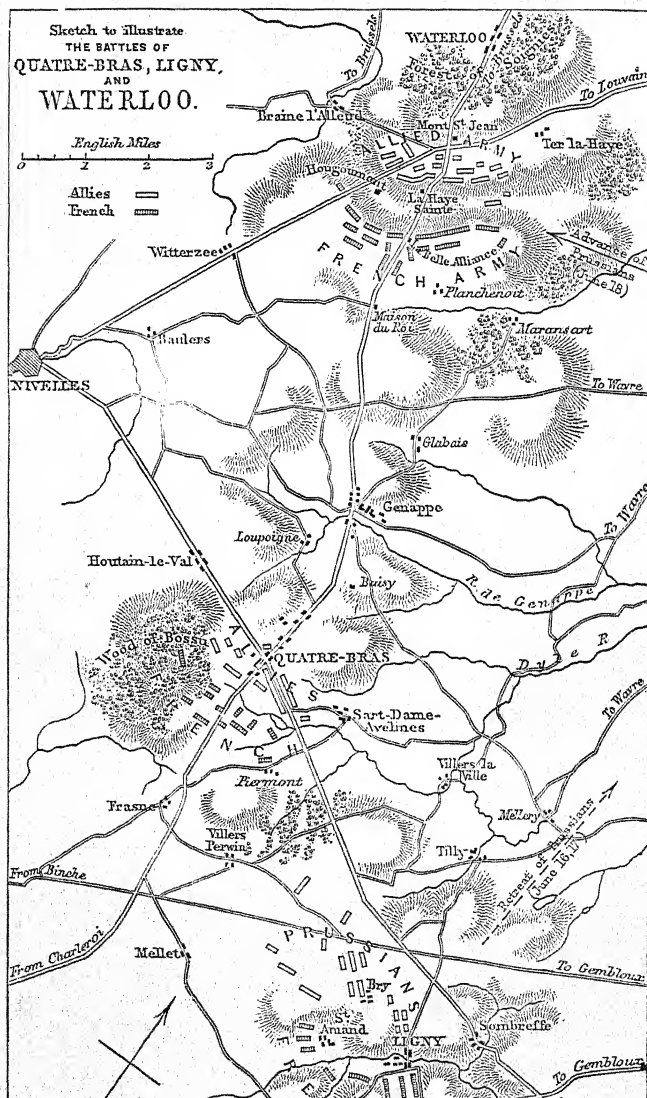
Napoleon saw that his only chance of escaping utter ruin lay in the separation of Wellington and Blucher. Against either of them singly he felt sure of victory, but even his magnificent troops could not expect to prevail against their forces united. His plans were therefore formed to prevent Blucher from joining Wellington, but whatever success he might have had was prevented by a series of mistakes and misunderstandings on his own part and that of his lieutenants.

On June 16, the Prussians were defeated at Ligny by Napoleon, who had left orders with Marshal Ney to drive the British from their position at Quatre Bras. Ney failed, and next morning Wellington withdrew his troops to Waterloo, about twenty miles south of Brussels, where he took up a strong position on a ridge. Napoleon, who was in bad health, omitted to obtain exact information, either as to the actual number of the Prussians or as to the line of their retreat from Ligny. Imagining that they had gone to the east, he sent Marshal Grouchy,

Sketch to Illustrate
THE BATTLES OF
QUATRE-BRAS, LIGNY,
AND
WATERLOO.

English Miles
0 1 2 3

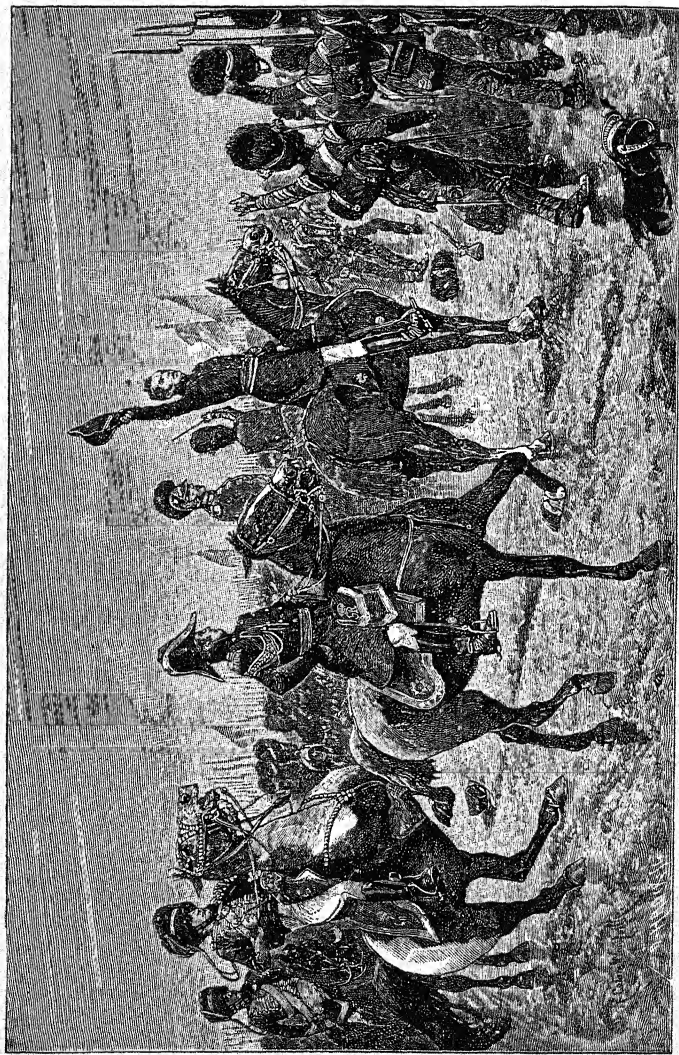
Allies ———
French ———



with a large corps, to keep them employed while he engaged Wellington; but they had really gone northwards to Wavre, and were thus many miles nearer Wellington than Napoleon imagined. Grouchy arrived at Wavre too late to prevent the departure of a great part of the Prussian army to Wellington's assistance, and when recalled by Napoleon, it was too late to save the battle.

The battle of Waterloo began about half-past eleven on June 18, 1815. Wellington's army was but little inferior in numbers to Napoleon's, but only 24,000 of his 60,000 men were British, and his Belgian troops lost no time in running away and spreading a report of his total defeat. Napoleon was stronger in guns and cavalry, and his troops comprised a large number of the seasoned veterans who had given him victory on many a field. Wellington's plan was to hold his ground until the Prussians came up, and the repeated onslaughts of the French artillery, infantry, and cavalry failed to break through the defence of the sturdy troops who held the ridge of the slope. The British squares of infantry proved more than a match for the finest cavalry in Europe; and their success so strengthened their confidence that they began to despise the enemy, crying, as the French horsemen returned to the charge: "Here come these fools again!"

Meanwhile Blucher had been pressing on to join the duke. His advance was greatly hindered by the soft state of the roads, due to heavy rains; but the old marshal pressed doggedly on, urging his men with such words as "Children, would you have me break my word?" About four o'clock, Napoleon saw the advanced guard of the Prussians coming up upon his right. He at once drew off part of his troops from the main attack to engage the new enemy.



Wellington's final order: "Let the whole line advance".

At this moment Wellington, who had never lost his coolness and judgment, brought up part of his reserve. Napoleon, seeing that the time had come for one last supreme effort, despatched against the British lines his famous Old Guard. As they charged gallantly up the slope, they were met by a withering fire from the British infantry, who had been lying down just behind the ridge, and at the same time were taken in flank. Thrown into utter confusion, the Frenchmen fled; Wellington ordered his whole line to advance, and the remnants of the great French army became a tangled mass of fugitives. The Prussian cavalry and artillery, commanding the only road by which the French could retreat, did fearful execution among them, and the number of the dead was never reckoned.

The defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo was due partly to his own errors, partly to the fidelity of Marshal Blucher and the Prussians, but mainly to the splendid steadiness of the British infantry under Wellington's masterly handling. It released Europe from the curse of Napoleon's ambition; and, after an attempt at flight, he gave himself up to the British, and was banished to the island of St. Helena, where six years later he died.

Thus ended the great war with France; a war during which the navies of France, Spain, and Holland were destroyed, many of their colonies were captured, and England gained new territories in every part of the world.

11. AFTER THE GREAT WAR.

During the great struggle with Napoleon, England had been on the whole prosperous. By her command of the sea she had gradually got into her hands the carrying

trade of the world; and while the trade of the Continental nations was crippled by the war, British trade flourished and increased. But the close of the war was the beginning of a period of distress and discontent. Trade fell off, partly because the immense stores for the army and navy were no longer needed, partly because peace enabled foreign countries to develop their own manufactures, and partly because of the heavy taxes levied on the raw materials for British manufactures. The demand abroad for British goods was not so great; many workers lost their employment and many business men failed.

But there were other causes of distress besides the depression in trade. For many years past a great change had been coming over the industrial life of the nation. From being an agricultural country Britain had become a manufacturing country. Agriculture was still very widely practised, but manufactures had grown to such an extent as to have become a very important source of wealth, and to employ a considerable proportion of the labouring classes. The result was that the corn produced at home, especially in years of bad harvests, was not sufficient to feed the whole population; yet laws had been passed hindering the free importation of grain from abroad, in order to keep up prices and secure to the rich land-owners the high rents which they exacted for their farms. But protecting the land-owners involved injuring the labouring classes; for, while wages were low, food was dear, and, through a succession of bad harvests, became scarcer and dearer.

Moreover, the recent introduction of machinery, both in agriculture and in manufactures, had for a time thrown out of employment the people who had formerly

earned their living by their hand-labour at the loom or the threshing-floor. The introduction of machinery, and especially the invention of the modern steam-engine by Watt, have been of vast benefit to the community; but it is easy to understand that, while the change from hand-labour to machine-labour was being carried out, the poor and the ignorant, seeing the means of earning a livelihood taken from them, were bitterly indignant, and blamed the government for their sufferings.

Thus it happened that in the last years of George III. there was an uncommonly large number of poor, hungry, and discontented people. In their distress they became violent. Riots broke out in various parts of the country; farm labourers burnt their master's ricks; weavers broke up the machines that had been introduced to take the place of their hand-loom. So great was the popular agitation that the Habeas Corpus Act was suspended for a time, because the government feared a revolution. Meetings were held to protest against the corn laws, and one of these meetings, on St. Peter's Fields, near Manchester, unhappily led to loss of life.

A great mob of some 30,000 people had assembled to hear a speech from a noisy orator named Hunt. The magistrates foolishly attempted to arrest Hunt after the meeting had begun. A small body of yeomanry accompanied the chief constable towards the platform from which Hunt was speaking; but as they were soon lost in the crowd, the magistrates, thinking the men were being resisted, ordered a troop of hussars to charge the people. In the tumult that ensued four or five lives were lost, and a hundred or more people were seriously injured. This "battle of Peterloo", as it was derisively called, still more increased the general hatred

for the government, which was unwise enough to signify its approval of the action of the magistrates.

Soon after this, in January, 1820, old King George died. He was eighty years of age, and for several years had been blind and insane. During this period the kingdom had been under the regency of the Prince of Wales, who now ascended the throne as King George IV.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FOURTH.

(1820-1830.)

SIR ROBERT PEELE.—I. CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION.

England has never lacked great statesmen to serve her. One dies, only to be succeeded by another, not inferior in honour, ability, or patriotism. The death of Pitt was speedily followed by the rise of Peel.

Robert Peel was born in February, 1788, the eldest son of a wealthy Lancashire cotton manufacturer, also named Robert. The father, a strong supporter and, in business matters, adviser of Pitt, who made him a baronet in 1800, from the first determined that his eldest boy should serve the State. Young Robert was sent to Harrow, where he distinguished himself by his diligence; and afterwards to Christ Church, Oxford, where he passed a brilliant examination and achieved the distinction of a "double first".

Entering Parliament in 1809 as member for Cashel, a small Irish borough, the young man by his character and abilities soon commanded attention. He became private secretary to Lord Liverpool, one of the Secretaries of State, and shortly after he was made also Under Secretary

for the Colonies. In 1812, when only twenty-four years old, he was appointed Chief Secretary for Ireland, a post the duties of which he fulfilled with much success for six years.

In his high office, one of the questions which Peel had to face was the Catholic question. Since the Union, Ireland had in no true sense been represented in the British Parliament, for though the majority of the people were Roman Catholics, the elections were controlled by the Protestant landlords, and no Roman Catholic could sit in Parliament. Patriotic



George IV.

Irishmen were striving to get rid of this injustice, and among them the foremost place was at this time taken by Daniel O'Connell, a barrister whose beautiful voice and fervent words acted on his countrymen like a spell. Peel stoutly opposed the claims of the Catholics, and gained the nickname of "Orange Peel" by his support of the Orange Associations.

During his term of office as Irish Secretary, he

organized a new body of police, afterwards known as the Royal Irish Constabulary. In popular talk the new police were called "Bobbies" and "Peelers", names which were afterwards given to the new London police organized by Peel.

In 1818 Peel resigned his office. He was now member for Oxford University. For four years he remained a private member, but his influence continually grew, and he was elected chairman of a committee appointed to deal with a difficult financial question. The measure that was afterwards passed to settle this question was commonly known as Peel's Act, and gave Peel a high reputation as a sound financier.

In 1822 he joined the ministry as Home Secretary, and turned his attention to the reform of the criminal law. A great number of offences were at that time punishable with death; but crime increased instead of diminishing, for juries and judges hesitated to send a man to his death for an offence like stealing a loaf, and thus criminals had great hope of escaping punishment altogether. Peel, during his term of office, repealed nearly 300 old laws which bore too hardly on the people, and capital punishment was limited to murder and a few other serious crimes. Thus he carried into effect the reform which earnest men like Sir James Mackintosh and Sir Samuel Romilly had long advocated in vain.

After five years as Home Secretary, Peel resigned because he differed from the Prime Minister, George Canning, on the Catholic question. Canning, a witty and brilliant minister, who did noble work for freedom at home and abroad, was in favour of allowing Catholics to sit in Parliament. Only four months after Peel's

resignation, Canning died, and Peel returned to the Home office under the new Prime Minister, the Duke of Wellington. Opposed as he was to admitting the Catholic claims, Peel soon saw that it would have to be done. The Commons had several times declared for Catholic emancipation, and when at length O'Connell, a Catholic, was elected member for Clare, it was evident that resistance could only be maintained by the government at the cost of civil war.

Wellington, like Peel, saw that the time for giving way had come, and Peel honour-

ably offered to retire from the ministry, fearing that his previous opposition might tie the duke's hands. But the duke would not allow him to retire, and it was ultimately decided to bring in three measures; one to suppress the Catholic Association, which had been agitating Ireland on the question, the second to remove the barriers which shut Catholics out of Parliament, and the third to regulate the Irish franchise. After the passing of the first act,



Sir Robert Peel.

Peel resigned his seat in Parliament, in order, by seeking re-election, to be assured that his action was approved. But he was rejected by Oxford University, then a stronghold of Toryism and intolerance, and was abused by almost the whole of the Tory party, in and out of Parliament, as a turncoat and a traitor—abuse which he bore without a murmur.

Being elected member for Westbury, Peel, on March 5, 1829, introduced his great measure for the relief of the Catholics. His speech, which occupied four hours, was a masterpiece of persuasiveness and sound statesmanship, and was received with immense applause. With his usual generosity and honourable feeling, Peel gave the credit of the measure to the great men who had fought for liberty and had passed away, such as Fox, Grattan, and Canning. The bill passed the Commons easily; the influence of Wellington secured its passage through the Lords, and on April 13, 1829, it became law. Thus was removed an injustice from which Catholics had suffered for a hundred and fifty years.

Peel then formed a new police force for London, to take the place of the old and feeble watchmen who failed to keep order and prevent crime. He was engaged in other beneficent reforms when George IV. died; a king whom no one respected, and whose death no one regretted.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE FOURTH.

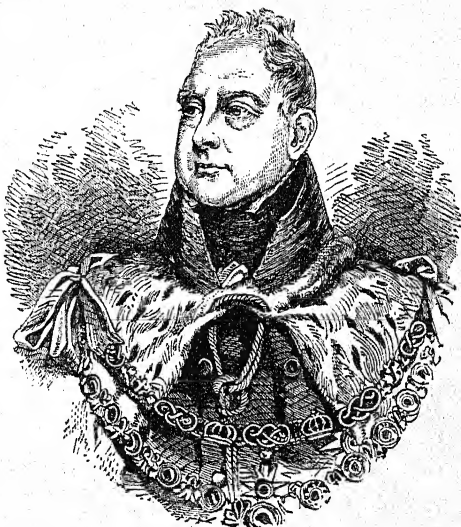
(1830-1837.)

1. SIR ROBERT PEELE.—II. PARLIAMENTARY REFORM.

The brother of George IV. succeeded to the throne as William IV., and during his short reign of seven years

proved a popular king. He was a bluff, hearty seaman, and his simple ways pleased the people. He showed no special favour to either party, Whigs or Tories, but thoroughly accepted his position as a constitutional sovereign.

The great question of the reign was that of parliamentary reform. Owing to the changes that had been for many years coming over the national life, the House of Commons, as then elected, did not truly represent the country. The majority of the members were elected by a



William IV.

handful of voters in the pocket boroughs of the great nobles and land-owners, who were all-powerful on their own property, and secured the election of their own relatives and friends, or of men who could be trusted to look well after their patrons' interests. On the other hand, the great towns which the growth of trade and manufactures had created, and which were drawing more and more people from the country districts, could not elect members at all. The forsaken hill of Old Sarum, in Wiltshire, still had the right of sending two members

to Parliament, while Leeds, Manchester, and Birmingham could not send one. In short, the Commons represented the upper classes; the great middle class of traders and merchants and the lower class of labourers and artisans were not represented at all.

For many years liberal-minded statesmen had seen that a reform was necessary. Chatham and Pitt had both made vain efforts to bring about such a reform, but opposition was so strong that not till 1832 was it actually accomplished. In a previous chapter mention has been made of the distress and discontent of the people after the great war, and of the violence which broke out in various parts of the country. A remarkable man named William Cobbett started a newspaper, in which he taught the people that violence would do them no good, but that they must educate themselves, and secure the power of electing members of Parliament to speak for them.

In William IV.'s first Parliament a motion was made in the House of Lords by the Whig Earl Grey, recommending that a measure of reform should be introduced. A great noble and land-owner himself, Lord Grey saw that the people were right in asking for better representation, and used all his eloquence and the influence of his high station and fine character to support their cause. But the Duke of Wellington, who could see no need of improvement, opposed Lord Grey in a speech which made him very unpopular, and in a short time his ministry was compelled to resign.

Lord Grey then became prime minister, and on March 1, 1831, one of his colleagues, Lord John Russell, an earnest and singularly able man, introduced the first Reform Bill in the House of Commons. It was strongly opposed by Peel and the Tories; the second reading was

only carried by a majority of one, and in committee the government suffered a defeat. Lord Grey then advised the king to dissolve Parliament, so that in electing a new House of Commons the nation might show whether it wished for a reform or not. The king agreed, and went down to the House of Lords to dissolve Parliament, just as Lord Wharncliffe in the Lords and Peel in the Commons were protesting against the action of the ministers. The king's action was very popular; people cried out for "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill", and the reformers had an immense majority in the new House of Commons.

In June, 1831, Lord John Russell introduced his second Reform Bill, which passed the Commons by great majorities, but was rejected by the Lords. Thereupon serious riots broke out, and unions were formed of men who declared they would march on London to support the ministers. In December a third bill was introduced, which, after passing the Commons, was again likely to be rejected by the Lords. In these circumstances Lord Grey asked the king to create a sufficient number of new peers to overcome the hostile majority, and when William refused the earl resigned.

Wellington was then asked to form a ministry, the king, who saw that reform must come, making it a condition that a Reform Bill of some kind should be introduced. Wellington, who was always ready to obey the king, accepted the duty; but Peel refused to join him in forming a ministry, and even to become prime minister, declaring that he could not in honesty support what he had so strongly opposed. At length the duke gave up the attempt to form a ministry, and Lord Grey was recalled. The king agreed to create new peers if necessary,

and Wellington, seeing that effective resistance was no longer possible, advised his supporters in the Lords, when the bill again came before them, to withdraw without voting. In this way the ministers gained a majority, and the bill passed in June, 1832.

This great Reform Bill took away 143 members from small and decayed boroughs; 43 towns, including Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, and Sheffield, were allowed for the first time to elect members; and 65 new members were given to the counties. The right to vote was extended to a large number of householders, and important changes were made in the mode of election. The result was that the House of Commons represented, not the aristocracy, but the great middle class of traders, farmers, and professional men. In the first reformed House the Whigs had a majority of more than 300 over the Tories.

2. SIR ROBERT PEEL.—III. MEASURES OF REFORM.

In the Reformed Parliament of 1833, Peel, who had three years before succeeded to his father's baronetcy and wealth, sat as member for Tamworth. Except for a few months as prime minister, in 1834-35, he passed the next eight years in opposition. They were years of very great importance. Political parties underwent a momentous change. The Whigs divided into two sections, Liberals and Radicals, the former content with the reform already accomplished, the latter eager to go much further. The Tories as a party had opposed reform; but Peel, as leader of the opposition, trained his followers to look for the will of the nation as a whole, and to be ready to effect moderate and well-thought-out reforms whenever they should be really necessary. These became

the principles of the Conservative party, as the more liberal Tories called themselves.

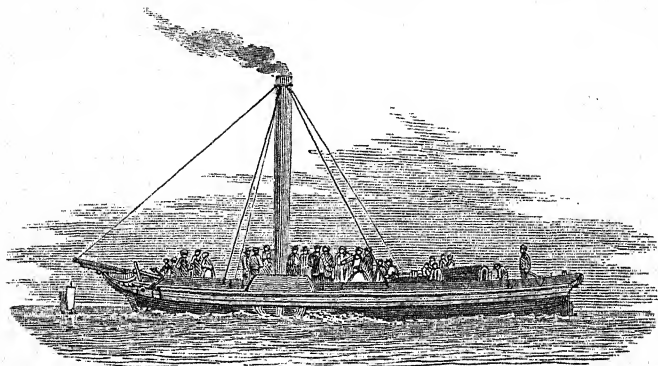
During this period Peel, while opposing the Liberal government on some questions, gave it cordial support on others. Among these was the great measure passed in 1833 for the freeing of the slaves in British colonies. Twenty-six years before, the exertions of some noble-minded men, William Wilberforce, Thomas Clarkson, and Zachary Macaulay (father of Lord Macaulay), had resulted in a measure for the abolition of the slave-trade. From 1807 it was illegal for any British subject to engage in the transport of negroes from Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies or elsewhere. In 1833 an act was passed setting all slaves in British dominions free, at the price of £20,000,000, paid by the government to their masters.

The same year Lord Ashley, afterwards Lord Shaftesbury, carried through Parliament a Factory Act, designed to prevent the overworking of children and young persons in factories. Peel's father had brought forward a similar measure thirty years before, and Sir Robert gave Lord Ashley his hearty support. The year 1833 also was marked by the first grant made in aid of national education, £20,000 being voted for the improvement and extension of school buildings.

In 1834 a new Poor Law was passed, to relieve honest and hard-working people from the great burdens thrown on them by the increase of pauperism. Under the old law a numerous class of casual labourers had grown up, who, with their large families, had received outdoor relief from the rates paid by the more industrious. The new law compelled all able-bodied persons who would not keep themselves to enter workhouses and work for their

living. The result was that the number of paupers and the amount of the poor-rate gradually diminished.

Among the many other reforms carried out in this reign was the lowering of the duties levied on newspapers. This resulted in a large increase in the number of newspapers, and consequently in greater knowledge of political affairs among the people at large.



Bell's first Steamboat, the "Comet".

The construction of the first railway, in 1825, by George Stephenson, was an event of immense importance. Railway trains soon took the place, in all parts of the country, of the old stage-coaches. Time was saved in the transport of goods, in the carrying of news, and in journeys for business and pleasure, and remote parts of the country were brought into a closeness of connection that was previously impossible.

Of equal importance was the increasing use of steam-boats. As early as 1803 Henry Bell had launched the first steamer on the Clyde; but it was not till many years later that steamships were built in any numbers.

THE REIGN OF VICTORIA.

(1837-1901.)

1. SIR ROBERT PEEL.—IV. THE CORN LAWS.

In 1837 William IV. died suddenly, and the sovereignty of the greatest empire in the world devolved on his niece Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent and granddaughter of George III. She was only eighteen years old when she became queen, but from the very first she showed herself to be possessed of good sense, firmness, dignity, and all the qualities of character and intellect which have since endeared her to her people. Her father having died when she was a baby, she was wisely trained by her mother for the high duties which it would some day be her lot to fulfil. For twenty-one years, from 1840 to 1861, she was aided by the counsel and sympathy of her husband, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg, a man of high intelligence, cultivated tastes, and sterling character, who put aside all personal ambition, and laboured untiringly in the service of his adopted country.

Queen Victoria's first prime minister was Lord Melbourne, a Whig. He is not regarded as a great statesman, but he did his country good service by carefully instructing the young queen in political affairs. His ministry was not generally successful; there were troubles both at home and abroad, and in 1841 he resigned, leaving a financial deficit of £10,000,000 to be made up by his successor. The new prime minister was Sir Robert Peel, who held office for five years, during which he accomplished work that won him the eternal admiration and gratitude of the British people. Among

the younger members of his ministry was William Ewart Gladstone.

Peel early set himself to get rid of the debt left by his predecessors. There was so much distress among the working-classes that he declined to impose further



Lord Melbourne.

taxation on articles of consumption. Instead, he levied an income-tax of 7*d.* in the pound, at the same time reducing the customs and excise duties on many articles; for he believed that such articles would be increasingly used if their price was lowered, and that what a man

paid in income-tax he would regain by the lessening of his household expenses. Before Peel left office, he had reduced the duties on more than a thousand articles, and totally abolished duty on more than six hundred.

The one commodity on which he did not see his way to abolish the duty was the most important of all—corn. The corn laws, as we have already seen, kept up the price of corn for the sake of the land-owners. To lessen the hardships of the poor, a “sliding scale” had

been introduced, by which in times of scarcity the duty on foreign corn became very low; but there had arisen in the minds of many a belief in free trade; that is, in the opening of British ports to food stuffs and raw material absolutely free of duty.

The Anti-Corn-Law League was founded by men of keen intelligence and great capacity to educate the people in the principles of free trade, and especially to urge on the government the repeal of the corn laws. Of this league the most prominent members were Richard Cobden, a calico printer, who had devoted himself to the careful study of the subject, and John Bright, a carpet manufacturer, who was the greatest orator of his day. These men did not enter Parliament until 1841 and 1843 respectively, but, for years before, Charles Villiers had annually proposed in the Commons a resolution against the corn laws.

Though Peel had abolished the duties on so many articles, he was at first strongly opposed, like the whole Tory party, to the removal of the duty on corn. He thought that the corn laws were necessary to the prosperity of the British farmers and the maintenance of British agriculture, and he was unwilling to do anything to injure these interests. But his eyes were gradually opened to the necessity of the reform. In 1845 the harvest failed in England, and the potato crop, on which the people depended, in Ireland. Poor people suffered intensely, and famine stared them in the face. Peel's sensitive nature was much affected by this distress; the Duke of Wellington said that he never saw a man in such agony. The efforts of the Anti-Corn-Law League were redoubled, and one speech of Cobden's in the Commons was so striking that Peel, tearing up the paper

on which he had been making notes for his reply, said to one of his colleagues, "*You* must answer this, for *I* cannot."

It was evident that measures of some kind must immediately be adopted. Peel proposed in the Cabinet to suspend the duties on corn, with a view to their complete abolition. In so doing he went totally against the principles of his party and his own former convictions, but Peel ever put the safety and welfare of the State above the claims of party. Some important members of the Cabinet opposed him, and he resigned. Lord John Russell, who had just issued a declaration against the corn laws, was called upon to form a ministry, but failing, Sir Robert Peel was recalled to office. He came back determined to repeal the corn laws, and was supported by many of his party, including Wellington, who had no love for reform, but said "a good government for the country is more important than corn laws or any other consideration".

In 1846 Peel introduced his bill. He explained the principles of free trade and his own change of view in a series of remarkable speeches. He bore without flinching the violent attacks of members of his own party, among whom the most brilliant and the most bitter was Benjamin Disraeli, afterwards Lord Beaconsfield. The bill was passed in the Commons; on June 25, 1846, it passed the Lords, and the repeal of the corn laws was accomplished. The duty on corn was to decrease gradually for three years until it reached one shilling; and in 1869 that shilling was removed and corn became absolutely free. Thus the poor gained the inestimable blessing of cheap bread.

2. SIR ROBERT PEEL.—V. HIS LAST YEARS.

On the same night on which the bill for the repeal of the corn laws passed the Lords, Peel was defeated in the Commons on a measure for Ireland, by the combination of the opposition with the disgusted members of his own party. Four days later he announced his resignation. In his speech he declared that the credit of bringing about free trade belonged to Richard Cobden, not to himself. He said that he would leave a name censured by Tories who accused him of betraying his party, by those who honestly dis-



Richard Cobden, M.P.

believed in free trade, and by those who opposed it from interested motives. "But", he said in closing, "it may be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of good-will in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread with the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

For the remaining years of his life no public cares interrupted the simple domestic life in which Peel found such deep enjoyment. The queen would have made him a lord and covered him with honours, but he respectfully declined them all; sprung from the people, with the people he would remain. He retained his seat in Parliament, where, though no longer the leader of a strong party, he exercised great influence, and was looked up to by a little band of Peelites, among whom Mr. Gladstone became the most notable. He often supported the measures of his successor, Lord John Russell.

His last speech was made on June 28, 1850, on the occasion of a great debate on foreign policy. Peel, while opposed to the policy of Lord Palmerston, the Foreign Secretary, paid a generous tribute to the ability with which Palmerston had defended it against objection. Then he went on to utter words of weighty advice and reproof, pleading the cause of peace and good-will. He went home at the dawn of day, saying that he felt at peace with all men.

Next day, as he was riding up Constitution Hill from Buckingham Palace towards Hyde Park, his horse, being suddenly startled, became restive. Peel was a careless horseman, and was flung heavily to the ground. It was seen that he was seriously injured, and a passing carriage was used to bear him home. After three days of intense agony, the great man passed away in his sixty-second year. The whole nation was plunged in grief, mourning for him, as the queen wrote, as for a father. In the House of Commons, Mr. Gladstone, one of Sir Robert's faithful supporters, quoted in impressive tones Sir Walter Scott's lines on Pitt:

"Now is the stately column broke,
The beacon light is quenched in smoke;

The trumpet's silver sound is still,
The warder silent on the hill."

Shy and reserved, stiff and awkward in ordinary society, Peel was loved and trusted by all who knew him well. The Duke of Wellington said of him: "I never knew a man in whose truth and justice I had a more lively confidence". As a leader in Parliament, Peel had no rival. Disraeli said that he was "the greatest member of Parliament that ever lived". He thoroughly understood how to manage the House of Commons, and his speeches were masterpieces of clear reasoning and persuasive eloquence. As a statesman, his name will ever be held in honour. He sought before all things the welfare of the nation, and was willing cheerfully to sacrifice the good opinion of his party and friends, and all personal ambition, for the sake of achieving what he believed would make his country strong, and prosperous, and contented.

3. CHARTISM AND REFORM.

The early years of Victoria's reign were remarkable for the rise of a body of men who became known as Chartists. The Reform Bill of 1832, while it largely increased the number of voters, and admitted the middle classes to a share in the power formerly held by the aristocracy alone, had left the working classes without votes. The Reform leaders did not think it wise to give power to poor and ignorant men, who, they feared, would not use it well. But there was much misery and discontent among the poor, and some of their leaders taught them that their condition would be much improved if certain further reforms were effected.

Accordingly, a movement was started with the object of bringing about six reforms: (1) manhood suffrage, (2) annual parliaments, (3) vote by ballot, (4) the abolition of the property qualification for members of Parliament, (5) the payment of members, (6) the division of the country into equal electoral districts. The objects of these proposals were to give a vote to every grown man, to enable him to vote freely and without fear, and to enable poor men as well as rich to enter Parliament. Two of them, the third and fourth, have long been carried out; and some progress has been made towards the achievement of the first, fifth, and sixth.

The reforms just mentioned made up what was called the People's Charter, and the men who worked for them were known as Chartists. Some of these were eager to force the government to grant their demands by violence and revolution; others were men of education, of high character, and of pure and noble motives, who believed in persuasion and peaceful measures. In spite of the efforts of the peaceful party to prevent disorder, riots broke out in various places, and the government took strong measures to put down the movement. Many of the leaders, including some who were altogether opposed to violence, were arrested, tried, and sentenced to terms of imprisonment; and their treatment in prison was often unreasonably severe.

In 1848, rather more than ten years after the agitation began, the Chartists proposed to draw up a monster petition to Parliament, to hold a great meeting on Kennington Green, and to march in procession to the House of Commons, taking their petition with them. The government, fearing violence, forbade the procession, and the whole affair turned out a failure; for the

Chartists were divided among themselves, some wishing to proceed in spite of the government, others determined to obey. Great excitement arose in London; soldiers were held in readiness to put down any violence that occurred; and special constables were enrolled in large numbers to protect property.

The Chartist meeting was held, and passed off peaceably; it was attended by less than one-tenth of the number expected. The petition, when presented to Parliament in the ordinary way, was examined; and it was found that many of the signatures were forgeries, and many

were fancy names, scrawled, in all probability, by mischievous schoolboys who found the sheets lying about. Everybody laughed at the collapse of the great agitation, and Chartism soon died out.

In 1866, when Lord John, who had now become Earl Russell, was prime minister, his chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Gladstone, brought in a second reform bill, still further enlarging the number of voters. The bill was not much liked, even by the Liberal party, and was defeated;



Lord John Russell.

whereupon Earl Russell resigned office, and was succeeded by Lord Derby and a Conservative government. Thereupon a great agitation sprang up throughout the country. Meetings were held demanding reform, and the working classes showed that they indignantly resented the defeat of the bill.

A meeting had been announced to be held in Hyde Park. The government ordered the police to shut the gates of the park and allow no one to enter. A great mob of loafers and roughs assembled, in addition to a number of people who really had an intelligent interest in the subject of reform. Many of the latter went quietly away when they found the gates closed; but some of the roughs, finding the park railings very shaky, managed to break them down, and rushed into the park.

It was more a rough frolic than a deliberate outrage; but the authorities were alarmed, and the government decided to remove all fear of a possible revolution by passing a Reform Bill of their own. Thus it happened that in 1867, the Conservatives, who had just defeated the Reform Bill of the Liberals, themselves passed a bill giving votes to a larger number of the smaller householders than the Liberals had proposed, and also, under certain conditions, to lodgers.

In 1868, the government of Lord Derby fell, and Mr. Gladstone became the head of a Liberal government. He passed in 1871 the Ballot Act, which enables voters to record their votes in parliamentary elections secretly, by making a cross against the name of the candidate they prefer. Under the former system of public voting, a man was sometimes afraid to vote as he wished, for fear of offending his employers. In 1885, when Mr. Gladstone was prime minister for the second time, a

third Reform Bill was passed, giving votes to a large number of the smaller householders in the counties.

As the result of these successive measures, men of all classes, from the wealthiest land-owners to the poorest workers in factories or yards or in the fields, are entitled to vote for a member of the House of Commons. The government of the country is chosen from the party which has a majority in the Commons; and therefore the men of Great Britain and Ireland have it in their power to say who shall be their real rulers. Those who read this book will see what changes have come about in this respect since the time of James I.

4. IRELAND AND HOME RULE.

As we have already seen, the Catholic Emancipation Act, passed in 1829, did away with a serious grievance under which Roman Catholics, and especially the Irish people, had long suffered. Since Roman Catholics were now admissible to Parliament, it was possible for the Catholic Irish to elect members who really represented them. Daniel O'Connell was the first of such members, and his wonderful voice was often heard in the House of Commons on behalf of his country.

O'Connell and many of his countrymen, however, were not satisfied with what they had gained. They believed that Ireland would never be a happy, prosperous and contented country until the Irish were allowed to govern themselves. They wished to repeal the Union effected by Pitt in 1800, to get rid of the British Lord-Lieutenant with his army of officials, and to have again a parliament of their own. They started an agitation for the Repeal of the Union; O'Connell addressed monster meet-

ings in all parts of Ireland, and worked up the Irish to a high pitch of enthusiasm.

So strong did the movement for repeal become, that O'Connell at length was bold enough to declare that the year 1843 would be the year of repeal. Though he was



Daniel O'Connell.

opposed to violence, and trusted to peaceful means to bring about his desires, some of his followers believed that one day he would lead them in arms. The government entertained the same belief, and, learning that a great meeting was to be held at Clontarf on October 8, 1843, the Lord - Lieutenant issued, on the day before that fixed for

the meeting, a proclamation forbidding it. At a word from O'Connell the people would have defied the proclamation; but their leader bade them obey it, and the meeting was not held.

O'Connell's most ardent supporters were bitterly disappointed, and from that moment his influence waned. He was soon afterwards arrested and tried on a charge of inciting to disaffection, and sentenced to pay a heavy fine and suffer twelve months' imprisonment. But the jury was composed of Irish Protestants bitterly opposed to O'Connell and his religion, and there were certain

irregularities in the trial. On appeal to the House of Lords, the sentence was properly set aside, and O'Connell was released from prison; but his power was gone, and four years later he died, a broken, disappointed man.

But the demand for the repeal of the union has not grown less strong during the fifty years since the death of O'Connell. As carried on by the "Young Ireland" party and the Fenians the movement was repressed by the stern hand of the British government, which, however, has never endeavoured to stifle merely political agitation. The miseries of the Irish people, especially those arising from the laws governing the holding of land, often found expression in violence and outrage, which needed strong measures to put them down.

Mr. Gladstone's first ministry (1868-1873) did something for Ireland in passing a Land Act, and disestablishing the Irish Church. The Protestant Episcopal Church had been the established church of the land since the Reformation, and held all the endowments which had belonged to the unreformed church. But the large majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics, and did not attend the established churches; and, but for the devotion of their priests, religion would have been almost unknown among them. In 1869, the Irish Church Act took away these old endowments from the Episcopal Church, and employed a large portion of them in relieving distress. Thus all the churches in Ireland became free, and Catholics and Protestants were put on an equal footing.

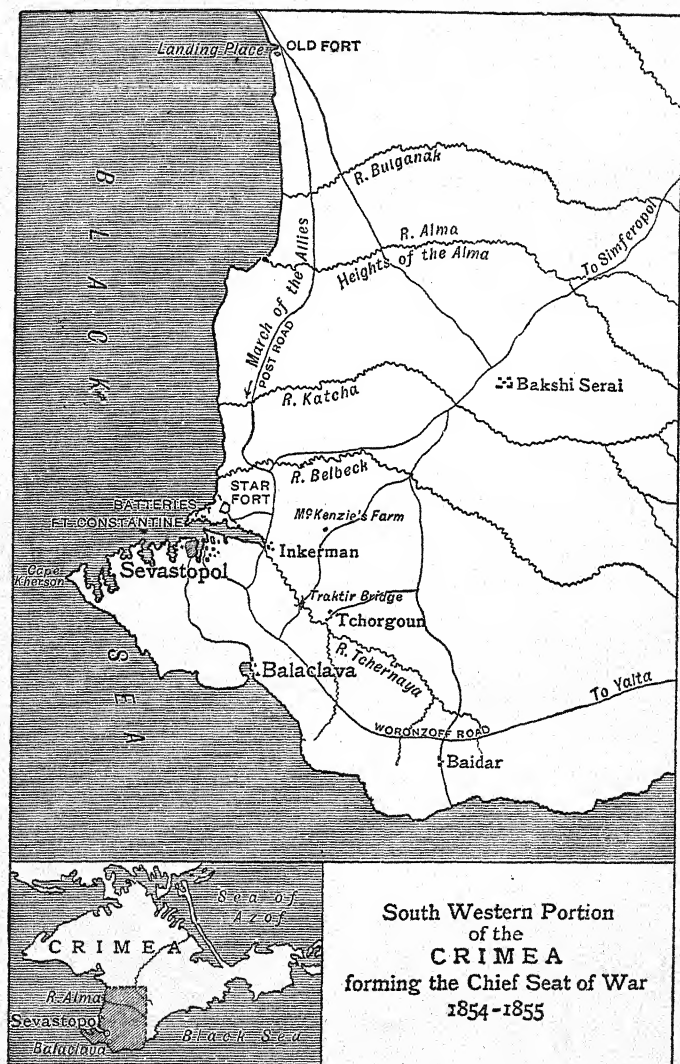
The year 1870 saw the founding of an association formed with the object of gaining Home Rule for Ireland, and of electing members of Parliament pledged to work for that end. In a few years, the Home Rule party in

the Commons numbered more than sixty members, and, under their skilful leader, Mr. Parnell, the Irish members made themselves exceedingly troublesome to the government. Both Conservatives and Liberals long resisted their demands, and passed coercion acts for the repression of disorder in Ireland. In 1886, however, Mr. Gladstone adopted the Home Rule cause, and thereby brought about a split in the Liberal party. His first bill for granting Home Rule was defeated by a majority of thirty in the Commons. Six years later, when prime minister for the fourth time, he brought in a second bill, which, after passing the Commons, was rejected in the House of Lords by an enormous majority.

Though, at the elections since 1885, the majority of the British people have declared their opposition to Home Rule, there is no doubt that they would welcome any plan which, without endangering the connection between the two islands, would give lasting happiness to the Irish, and tend to encourage a sincere feeling of loyalty to the crown.

5. THE CRIMEAN WAR.

The peace which Britain had enjoyed in Europe for forty years since Waterloo, was broken in 1854, through a quarrel between Russia and Turkey. Russia claimed by treaty the right of protecting the Christian subjects of Turkey, a claim which Turkey refused to admit, because it would remove those subjects from the authority of the Sultan, and place them under a foreign power. The Tzar of Russia then sent his troops across the Danube into Turkish territory, and, after vain attempts to settle the question had been made by the other powers,



Turkey declared war. England took the side of Turkey, believing that Russia was aiming at the possession of Constantinople, and had designs on India. France joined England, and thus Russia was confronted by three powers.

At the beginning of the war, the Turkish troops, under English officers, had considerable success in defending their fortresses. But the Turkish Black Sea fleet having been destroyed by the Russians, the allies determined on an invasion of the Crimea, a district north of the Black Sea, which contained the great port and arsenal of Sevastopol. The plan of the allies was to make a combined attack on Sevastopol by sea and land; but the Russians prevented the naval operations by sinking their own fleet at the entrance of the harbour. The British and French troops, however, landed without opposition in the Crimea.

The first great battle was fought on September 20, 1854. The Russians had occupied in force the heights of Alma, some twenty miles north of Sevastopol. A joint attack was made on them by the British and French, and, owing to the nature of the ground, the brunt of the fighting fell on the British. The Russians were driven back by the dogged bravery of the soldiers, for there was no opportunity for the display of generalship. Indeed, Lord Raglan, the English general, one of Wellington's old officers, took up a position whence it was impossible to issue further orders after the battle had begun. But for the allies' weakness in cavalry, which prevented pursuit, the Russians would have been utterly routed.

The allies then pressed on to attack Sevastopol; but the Russians had made the most of their opportunities

for strengthening its defences, and it was soon seen that the town could only be taken after a protracted siege. On October 25, the Russians made a violent attack on the British at Balaclava, where deeds were done that will



The Charge of the Light Brigade.

live for ever in the memories of Britons. The 93rd Highlanders, under Sir Colin Campbell, coolly awaited the attack of 25,000 Russians. Sir Colin drew the men up in line, telling them there was no retreat, and that they must die where they stood. "Ay, ay!" shouted the men: "we'll do that, Sir Colin!" Fortunately the

Russian general did not use his full strength, but only sent a few squadrons of cavalry to cut up the "thin red line" opposed to them. But the Highlanders received the Russian horsemen with a volley which sent them reeling to right and left, and the attack was repulsed.

In another part of the field, the British Heavy Brigade of cavalry, by a brilliant charge, put to flight a much larger Russian force. But the exploit of the day was the famous charge of the Light Brigade. By some confusion of orders the British leader understood that he was to make an attempt to capture some Russian guns at the end of a long valley, commanded by artillery on the surrounding heights. Though he saw there was a mistake, he obeyed what he believed to be his orders. The Light Brigade, 600 strong, was ordered to charge, and the men rode off steadily, in spite of the terrible artillery fire which broke on them from all sides. On they rode through the valley; they reached the guns; they drove the gunners away; they rode back—"all that was left of them". Four hundred men perished in that fatal charge; but the valour and the heroic obedience of the gallant Britons struck the French and Russians with astonishment and admiration, and made the hearts of their countrymen thrill with honourable pride.

On November 5th the Russians were signally defeated at Inkerman. This was known as the "soldiers' battle", for the mist which hung over the field prevented the generals from employing any tactics. The battle was won by the bull-dog courage of the British infantry.

All through the winter the siege dragged wearily on. The weather was terrible, and the troops suffered fearful hardships from cold, want of clothing, and disease. Storms destroyed the transports bringing supplies; the

men spent their nights and days soaking wet in the trenches; and through disgraceful management they perished by hundreds. But a change of ministry at home brought Lord Palmerston to the head of affairs. Under his vigorous management things were changed. Measures were taken to relieve the sickness and misery of the men: and a lady named Florence Nightingale went out, with other ladies as refined as herself, to undertake the nursing.

At last, on September 8, 1855, the Russians burnt and deserted Sevastopol, after the repeated assaults of the allies and the capture of outworks showed them that they could hold out no longer. This was practically the end of the war. One other notable exploit was the splendid defence of Kars, a fortress in Armenia, by Turkish troops under a British officer, Colonel Williams, against overwhelming numbers of Russians. Famine at last compelled Williams to surrender; but his skill and bravery so excited the admiration of the Russians that they allowed the garrison to leave the town "with all the honours of war".

6. THE INDIAN EMPIRE BEFORE THE MUTINY.

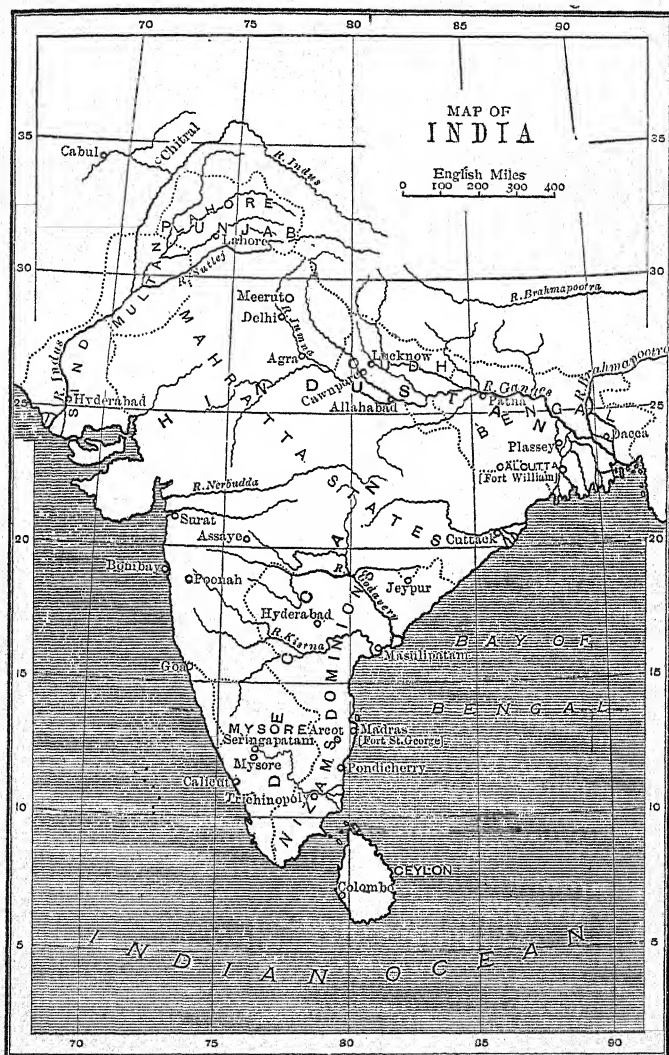
When Queen Victoria came to the throne, the British possessions in India had become one of the most important parts of her dominions. The power of the warlike Mahrattas had been destroyed in 1818; and the first Burmese war, in 1824-26, had resulted in the annexation of Assam and other provinces. The country was well ruled by a succession of able Governor-Generals, and the more enlightened of the natives began to see that British rule would benefit them, by establishing order, putting

down tribal wars, and securing the people against the oppression of unworthy princes.

One of the best of the British governors was Lord William Bentinck, who held office from 1828 to 1835, and who was the first to make the good of the natives his chief aim. He abolished a cruel religious custom known as *suttee*, by which Indian widows were burnt alive at the funeral of their husbands. He crushed out an association known as the *thugs*, who were professional murderers, bound by oath to strangle as many people as they could. During Bentinck's term of office considerable additions were made to British territory.

Early in Victoria's reign occurred a great disaster in Afghanistan. Russia had been extending her dominions in Central Asia, and the rulers of India feared that an alliance between the Russians and Afghans would be dangerous to the British power. An Afghan ameer who seemed too friendly to the Russians was expelled by the British, and a new one set up in his place, and kept in power by British troops. But he was not acceptable to the Afghans: the British agent at Cabul, the capital, was murdered; and the British army was compelled to retire towards India. The Afghan leaders promised not to molest them, but as the small British force of 4000 men passed through the narrow passes over the mountains, they were attacked by the wild Afghan tribes. Of the whole force, only one man, Dr. Brydon, escaped death from cold or at the hands of the enemy. A British army marched to avenge the treachery, defeated the Afghans, took Cabul, and blew up its principal buildings.

In 1845 the Sikhs, a warlike religious community in the north-west, invaded British territory. They were a brave people, had been well trained in arms by European



officers, and under their ruler, Ranjit Singh, had been friendly to the British; but at his death the chief power passed into the hands of ambitious generals, who were eager to gain a victory over the British sepoy. The invading army numbered 60,000 fine soldiers, with 150 guns of the best make. Four great battles were fought, in which the Sikhs were defeated, but with heavy loss to the British. At the last of them, the battle of Sobraon, Sir Hugh Gough drove the Sikhs back; and their capital, Lahore, surrendered. Their country, known as the Punjab, was placed under a Sikh council, to rule on behalf of Dhuleep, the infant son of Ranjit Singh, and Sir Henry Lawrence was appointed resident adviser.

Four years later, during the absence of Sir Henry Lawrence, disorder broke out, two British officers were murdered, and the whole Sikh population took arms against the British. At Chilianwallah, in January, 1849, the British barely escaped defeat, losing more than 2000 officers and men, as well as guns and colours. But a few weeks later Gough completely defeated the Sikhs at Gujerat. The Punjab was then annexed to the British dominions, and under wise administration became a valuable possession.

Lord Dalhousie, who was Governor-General from 1848 to 1856, did splendid work for India. He introduced cheap postage and the telegraph; he established the Public Works Department, which took in hand the construction of roads, canals, and railways. He brought large territories under British rule, including the great province of Oudh. During his rule the second Burmese war broke out, caused by the king's insolent treatment of some European merchants at Rangoon. The war was speedily brought to an end, and Lower Burmah became

British territory. Under its new rulers its prosperity enormously increased, and Rangoon, before many years had elapsed, became a flourishing city.

7. LORD LAWRENCE.—I.

On the conclusion of the first Sikh War, when Sir Henry Lawrence was placed at Lahore as British Resident, his younger brother John was made administrator of the small Sikh province that was annexed to British territory. This young man of thirty-four was afterwards known as the "Saviour of India", became governor-general and a lord, and when he died was laid to rest among other British heroes in Westminster Abbey.

John Laird Mair Lawrence was born in 1811 at Richmond, in Yorkshire, where his father was lieu-



Sir John, afterwards Lord Lawrence.

tenant-colonel commanding a regiment of infantry. As a boy he was turbulent and self-willed, and frequently in trouble. Of one of his schools he said: "I was flogged there every day of my life but one, and then I was flogged twice". Passing in 1827 to Haileybury, a school founded by the East India Company for the education of youths for the Indian Civil Service, he gained little distinction except a prize for Bengali; and he left for India with his brother Henry in 1829.

For several years he held subordinate offices in the

north-west provinces. He worked hard, and though he had a hot temper and rough manners, he had the power of making friends with the natives, who respected him for his strict sense of justice. He spoke their language fluently; indeed, he almost lost for a time the ability to speak English.

His merits only gradually became known to the rulers of India; but in 1849, when the Punjab was annexed, Lawrence was appointed by Lord Dalhousie one of the board of three administrators for the new province, the president being his brother Henry.

An amusing incident is recorded of this part of his life. At the annexation of the Punjab it was arranged that certain fine jewels should become the property of Queen Victoria, including the famous Koh-i-noor, a splendid diamond which had had an eventful history for five hundred years. This diamond was given into the keeping of John Lawrence, who wrapped it up carefully, placed it in a small box, and put the box in his waistcoat pocket. Soon after he changed his clothes, and, being habitually careless of them, he threw aside the waistcoat containing the diamond, and forgot all about it.

Six weeks later a message came from Lord Dalhousie that the queen had sent for the Koh-i-noor. Not till then did Lawrence remember the diamond. Horror-stricken at his carelessness, he hurried to his rooms, and asked his old native servant if he had put away the waistcoat or noticed the little box. Luckily the servant had found the box, and locked it up in a trunk belonging to his master. When, at Lawrence's order, he brought it and unfolded the wrappings in which the diamond was concealed, he was astonished at the delight of his master at the safety of a mere piece of glass, as the

ignorant Hindoo thought it. The priceless gem was sent to England, and found a place in the queen's crown.

As a member of the Punjab board, Lawrence did excellent work, constructing roads and canals, promoting agriculture, settling the system of land tenure in a way favourable to the poor cultivators, and firmly putting down disorder. In 1853, becoming the sole commissioner for the province, he made repeated journeys through it for the purpose of learning the wants of the people, settled the taxation in a way that pleased all classes, and by his orderly government secured their entire respect and confidence.

8. LORD LAWRENCE.—II. THE INDIAN MUTINY.

The value of his work was tried in a terrible way. On Sunday, May 10, 1857, the Sepoys at Meerut rose in open mutiny against their officers, broke into the jail and set free the prisoners, rushed out of their quarters, cutting down all who opposed them, and set off to Delhi to raise the native troops there. There were several causes of this mutiny. The natives were not allowed to hold high posts in the army or the civil service; many of them believed that the British government was intending to destroy their old customs and institutions, of which they were exceedingly proud; and the large extension of British territory was very vexatious to them.

But the moving cause was the introduction among the Bengal sepoy of a new cartridge, in the manufacture of which the fat of cows and pigs had been used. Now, to the Hindoo the cow is a sacred animal, while the pig is considered unclean by the Hindoo and the Mohammedan alike. They therefore held the introduction of this

cartridge to be a deliberate attempt to offend their deepest religious feelings and make them violate the laws of caste. It was not so; it was due to stupid carelessness on the part of the authorities. The cartridge was withdrawn, but the mischief was already done.

The outbreak at Meerut was followed by a general rising in many parts of Northern and Central India. British officers, and sometimes women and children, were massacred; and their possessions were plundered. Delhi was captured by the rebels, and the descendant of the Great Mogul was proclaimed ruler of the empire.

Now the work of John Lawrence bore fruit. The British army was below its proper strength; many of the troops had been withdrawn to serve in the Crimea, and many of the best officers were acting as civil administrators in different parts. If India was to be saved, a blow must at once be struck at the mutineers. The necessary force came from the Punjab. The Sikhs were nobly loyal, and Lawrence was able to send provisions and a force of British and Sikhs, under General Nicholson, to the assistance of a British army that was besieging 30,000 mutineers in Delhi. The siege lasted three months, and the town was only won after desperate fighting and great loss. Among the dead was the gallant Nicholson.

Meanwhile terrible scenes were being enacted elsewhere. At Cawnpore the mutineers were headed by a ferocious wretch commonly known as Nana Sahib. The British, less than 500 in number, of whom the majority were women and children, took refuge in a weakly fortified place, where for nearly three weeks they held out against the rebels. Then they surrendered, trusting to Nana's promise that they would be allowed to retire safely to

Allahabad. They embarked in boats on the Ganges, but no sooner had they started than a storm of shots assailed them from the bank. The boats were sunk, and of the 450 people who set out, only four men escaped, while 125 women and children were thrown into prison.

A small army under Sir Henry Havelock was hastening from Calcutta to the relief of the British. Fighting hard, Havelock reached Cawnpore only to learn that Nana, hearing of his approach, had slaughtered all the prisoners and thrown their bodies into a well. The relieving force took a terrible vengeance on the mutineers, but Nana escaped, to die a fugitive in the jungle.

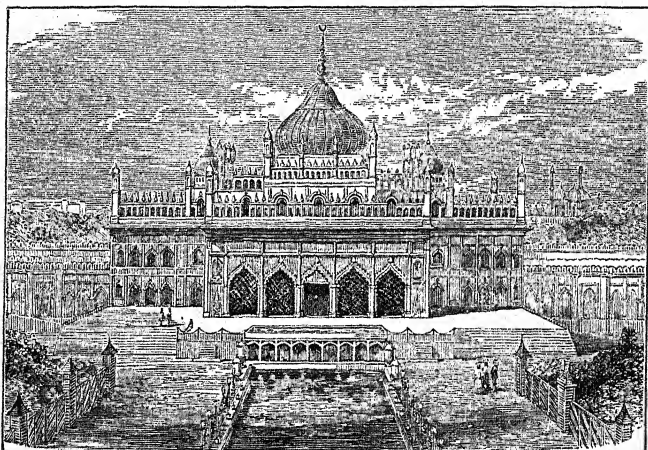


Major-General Sir Henry Havelock.

At Lucknow, meanwhile, the capital of Oudh, one British regiment and 500 faithful native soldiers, with many women and children, were besieged in the Residency by a vast host of rebels. Sir Henry Lawrence, who commanded the British, was killed; but the defence was maintained by Colonel Inglis for eighty-seven days, during which the defenders suffered terribly from the great heat and the want of supplies. At length Havelock forced his way into the town with 3000 men, and relieved the garrison, but was immediately hemmed in by the rebels. Nearly two months passed before Sir Colin

Campbell, with the brave Highlanders who had fought so well in the Crimea, came up from Cawnpore, stormed the city, and brought out the whole garrison, leaving Lucknow again to the rebels. Havelock died, worn out by disease, before the British left the city.

Sir Colin Campbell and other generals spent several



Imambara, or House of the Twelve Patriarchs, Lucknow.

months in quelling the rebellion in different parts of the north. Then, in March, 1858, Campbell returned to Lucknow, and gave the death-blow to the mutiny by the total defeat of the rebels and the capture of the city.

Everybody acknowledged the great part which Lawrence had played in saving our empire. But for his firm government of the Punjab, and his courage and promptitude in despatching troops to the siege of Delhi, the mutiny, confined to the north and centre, might have spread all over India before troops could have been sent

from England in numbers large enough to crush it. Lord Canning, the Governor-General, wrote of Lawrence: "But for him the hold of England over Upper India would have had to be recovered at a cost of English blood and treasure which defies calculation. It is difficult to exaggerate the value of such ability, vigilance, and energy at such a time."

9. LORD LAWRENCE.—III. INDIA SINCE THE MUTINY.

Lawrence had been made a knight in 1856. On his return to England after the Mutiny, in broken health and with failing eyesight, he was made a baronet; the East India Company voted him an annuity of £2000 a year, and honours of all kinds were showered on him.

A great change was now made in the government of India. The East India Company was abolished, and its territories were transferred to the Crown, the Governor-General, Lord Canning, becoming the first Viceroy. A new policy was adopted towards the natives, who were gradually, as they proved their fitness, admitted to offices in the public service. Their education was carefully attended to, colleges and public schools, leading up to the universities, being established in many parts. The best of the native princes were maintained in their dominions, British officers being appointed to advise them, with the result that the people soon learnt the blessings of a peaceful and orderly government.

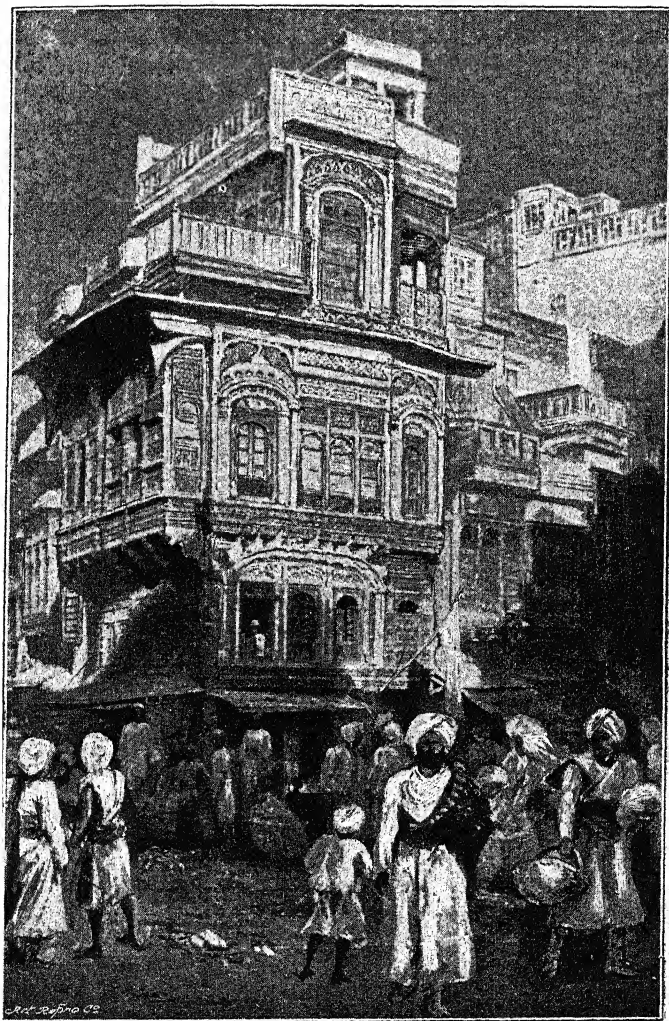
In 1863 Sir John Lawrence became Viceroy of India. During his six years of office, much was done for the improvement of the country. The railways were extended, new canals were constructed, and the cultivation of cotton

was vigorously promoted. Great help was given to the natives in a terrible famine which fell on India in 1866, owing to the want of rain. The system of justice was improved, and sanitary reforms were effected in towns and jails and barracks. Lawrence kept as much as possible out of war, and when he retired in 1869 he left India prosperous and contented.

On his return to England he was made a baron, and as Lord Lawrence he was for three years chairman of the first London School Board. In this position he showed the same ability and energy which had marked his work in India. In the House of Lords his voice was always listened to with respect when the affairs of India were under discussion, and in 1878 he made a strong protest against the policy of Lord Lytton, the Viceroy, which led to a war with the Afghans. His last speech was made in the House on June 19, 1879, and exactly a week later he died. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, and statues at Calcutta and London make both Britons and Indians acquainted with the form of the man who did such great and honourable work for the empire.

The successors of Lord Lawrence in the viceroyalty have nearly all followed the good example set by him. Among them may be mentioned Lords Northbrook, Ripon, and Dufferin. India itself has been almost entirely at peace since the Mutiny, but wars have taken place on its borders, and in these the native soldiers of the British army have borne a splendid part.

The Afghan war of 1878-1880, which repeated some of the disasters of the first war in 1842, was marked by the brilliant exploit of General Roberts, who by a march of astonishing rapidity from Cabul to Candahar saved a small British garrison in the latter city. In 1885 the



Indian Merchant's House.

cruelties of Theebaw, King of Upper Burmah, led to an expedition which captured his capital Mandalay. Theebaw was deposed and banished, and the whole of Burmah became British territory; and under British rule it is rapidly becoming a thriving country.

Every effort has been made to render the people of India satisfied with their rulers. In 1876, the Prince of Wales made a tour through India, and the people, seeing with their own eyes the genial prince one day to be their sovereign, began to realize that they formed part of one great empire. In 1877, when Lord Beaconsfield was prime minister, Queen Victoria was proclaimed at Delhi Empress of India, amid the enthusiasm of a great assembly. Since then the connection between Britain and India has been drawn closer and closer. Indian princes and gentlemen send their sons to English universities to be educated. They have shown themselves willing to adopt English ideas of government, and the people at large have been encouraged to make efforts towards governing themselves.

The result has been an astonishing growth of loyalty to the British crown. Indian troops have taken part in British wars, and in 1885, when it seemed likely that Britain would be compelled to fight Russia, the Indian princes, of their own accord, offered their men and their money for the war. Quite recently, in the early months of 1895, the splendid defence of Chitral, and its relief by armies sent from different quarters to its assistance, were in great part due to the devotion and gallantry with which the Indian troops obeyed their British officers.



The Prince of Wales receiving the homage of an Indian prince.

10. CANADA AND AUSTRALASIA.

The history of our great colonies in North America and Australasia is very different from the history of India. India teems with a vast population, of different races and religions; the Dominion of Canada and the Australasian colonies are still but sparsely peopled by Europeans or persons of European descent, and the native races are fast dying out. Thus, while Indian history is filled with exciting stories of war and conquest, the histories of Canada and Australia are mainly the record of peaceful development.

In an earlier chapter we have seen that Canada was taken from the French. It was afterwards divided into two provinces, Upper and Lower Canada, corresponding to the provinces of Ontario and Quebec, the former being inhabited by British, the latter by French. Not many years passed before great differences arose between the two provinces, and in the year of Queen Victoria's accession a rebellion broke out among the French. It was easily put down, but discontent existed in the upper province also, and the British government sent out Lord Durham to inquire into the causes of the troubles, and report on the best means to remove them.

Lord Durham was a most able and honourable man, who set to work with the best intentions and with great energy. But he went beyond his powers, and some of his actions raised such a storm at home that he was hastily recalled in 1840. But the suggestions which he made have been gradually carried out. The two provinces were at once united, and allowed to govern themselves by means of two legislative chambers, a Lower House, elected by the people, and an Upper House of life-members, the



Sunday in the Backwoods.
From the painting by John Pettie, R.A., copyright of Messrs. Henry Graves & Co. By kind permission.

crown being represented by a governor-general sent from England. In 1867 a great Federation was formed, under the name of the Dominion of Canada, which all the British North American colonies, except Newfoundland, have joined, each colony managing its own local affairs, and sending representatives to a parliament of the whole Dominion meeting at Ottawa.

In 1885 the opening of the Canadian Pacific Railway joined the extreme east, Nova Scotia, with British Columbia in the extreme west. Vast tracts of land are now under cultivation; new tracts are opened up every year, and the products of the Canadian fields, forests, and cattle-farms are being carried into all parts of the world. And, not least, the whole population of Canada is united in true loyalty to the throne, and is ready to fight to maintain its place in the British Empire.

The history of Australia has been even more peaceful than that of Canada. The great island-continent first became generally known through the voyages of Captain Cook, who in 1770 landed on its south-east part and set up the English flag. The new possession was at first made use of as a settlement for criminals condemned to penal servitude. Around Botany Bay the convicts lived, suffering sometimes terrible hardships, and forming a society of scoundrels and ruffians.

By and by the discovery that the soil was particularly suitable for sheep-grazing drew free settlers to the continent. These "squatters", as they were called, lived in lonely stations on the great plains, where they grew crops, and reared cattle and sheep for the export of wool and hides to Europe. As the free settlers increased in number, they protested against the sending over of more convicts, and these were then sent to Tasmania and

Western Australia, until the decrease of crime at home, due in great part to Peel's legislation, rendered transportation unnecessary.

In 1851 the discovery of gold in New South Wales led to a rush of thousands of immigrants. The population grew enormously; great towns sprang up where once only a few huts had stood; and from that time the progress of Australia has been rapid. The southern part of New South Wales became a new colony, Victoria; and the three colonies, New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, together with Tasmania, were each allowed to rule themselves under a governor sent from England. New Zealand, the island country of a fine native race, the Maoris, became a colony in 1839, and received self-government in 1852. War with the Maoris occurred in 1861 and 1868, but, except in these years, the two races have lived in friendship with one another, the Maoris inhabiting their own portions of the islands, and sending their own representatives to the colonial parliament. In 1859 the northern part of New South Wales became an independent colony under the name of Queensland.

The Australian colonies have prospered greatly under their self-governing institutions. In 1901 the Australian Colonies and Tasmania were, like Canada, united under one parliament, and now form the Commonwealth of Australia. Some wish to go even further, and unite all British colonies with the mother country in one great federation, each member of which, while independent so far as its individual affairs are concerned, would have a share in the government of the empire.

It is certain that the colonists are animated by sincere feelings of loyalty to the British crown. In 1882 Aus-

tralian troops took a voluntary part in the Egyptian war, and during the South African war the Australian Commonwealth rivalled Canada and New Zealand in her loyal support of the mother land. The feeling of many Britons and Colonials is well expressed in the lines which Lord Tennyson wrote for the opening of the Colonial Exhibition in 1886:

“Shall we not through good and ill
Cleave to one another still?
Britain’s myriad voices call,
‘Sons, be welded each and all
Into one imperial whole,
One with Britain, heart and soul!
One life, one flag, one fleet, one throne!
Britons, hold your own!’”

11. AFRICA.

The story of British enterprise in Africa resembles, in many respects, the story of India. Trading settlements on the west coast were made as early as the year 1591, and additions were gradually made by conquest or treaty. But the dangers of the climate, the great size of the continent, and the difficulties of exploration in the interior rendered progress slow. During the last half-century, however, the enterprise of trading companies and the discoveries of such intrepid explorers as Dr. Livingstone, Sir Richard Burton, and Sir H. M. Stanley have led to a great extension of the territories brought, directly or indirectly, under British sway.

The Dutch colony in the south, the Cape of Good Hope, was captured in 1805. It was at that time peopled by a few Dutch farmers or Boers, whose settlements lay far apart, and were cultivated by means of the slave labour of the subdued native race, the Kaffirs. The

excellence of the climate and the fertility of the soil attracted Englishmen to the Cape, and the Boers, disliking the intrusion of the new-comers, by and by withdrew from the colony, and established a new settlement in Natal. Their treatment of the natives was so bad that wars were continually breaking out, and the British, who endeavoured to treat the natives with more fairness, took Natal from the Boers in 1843.

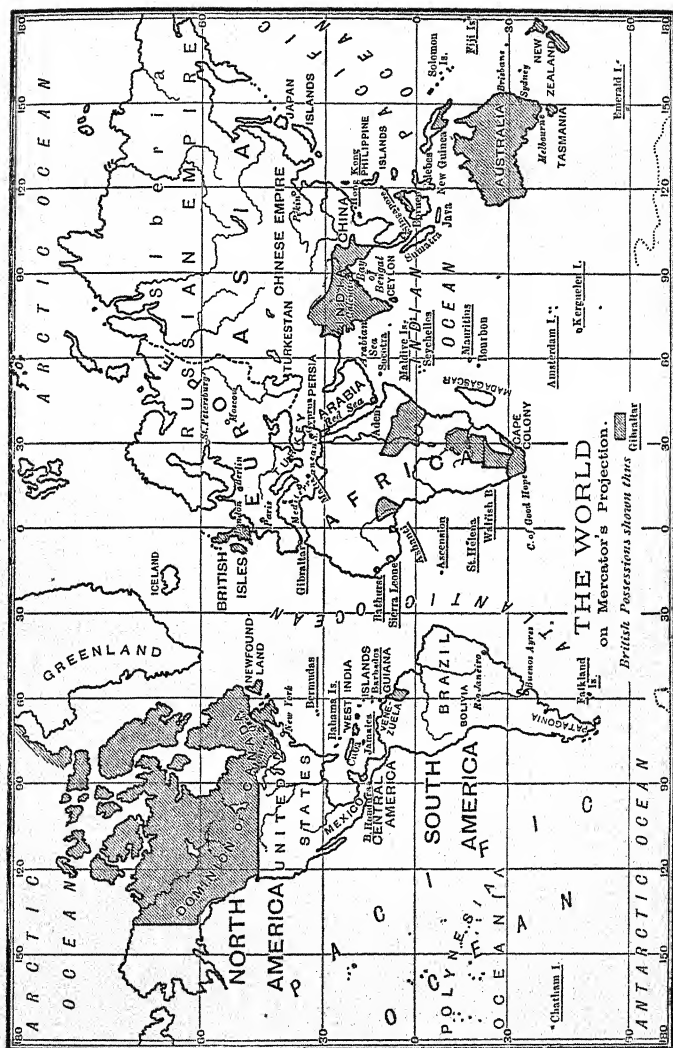
The Boers then went further west and north, and founded the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. Meanwhile all the land south of the Orange river had become British territory, and the dull, stolid Boers saw with jealousy the advance of the more energetic British. In 1869 the discovery of diamonds in Griqualand West drew a large number of settlers to the country, where in a short time the flourishing mining town of Kimberley arose. Griqualand became part of Cape Colony in 1871, and since then almost every year has seen the annexation of new regions.

The continual disorder between the Boers and the natives, and the bankruptcy of the Boer government, led Lord Beaconsfield in 1877 to place the Transvaal under British rule, and Britain was involved in war with the Zulus, a brave and warlike race with whom the Boers had quarrelled. The opening of the war was marked by the terrible disaster at Isandula, where the Zulus, under their king Cetewayo, cut to pieces the small British force opposed to them. British troops in large numbers were then sent out, under Sir Garnet Wolseley, who had commanded a successful expedition against Ashanti on the west coast in 1874. Before Wolseley's arrival the Zulus were finally crushed at Ulundi, and after a time Zululand became a British colony.

The Zulu war was hardly concluded when the Boers of the Transvaal revolted. They defeated small British forces, fighting under peculiarly unfavourable conditions, in several battles; and Mr. Gladstone's government, believing that the annexation of the Transvaal had been a mistake, magnanimously stopped the war, and restored their independence to the Boers, reserving to Britain the right to control their foreign relations.

The mineral wealth of the Transvaal attracted large numbers of foreigners there, many of them being British subjects. A long course of misgovernment and oppression by the Boers led to more than one attempt at rebellion, and at length, in 1899, an appeal was made to the British government for help. The efforts of the British government were met by a threat of war, and in October, the Boers, aided by the Orange Free State, invaded Natal, defended by only a small force of British troops. While the Boers wasted time in besieging three towns, Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking, a large British army was sent out. The towns held out bravely for months, under General White, Colonel Kekewich, and Colonel Baden-Powell, and after many hard fights, and some failures and disappointments, all the towns were relieved by our armies under Lord Roberts, General Buller, and General French.

Lord Roberts then carried the war into the enemy's country. He soon entered Bloemfontein, the Free State capital, and three months afterwards captured Pretoria, the seat of the Transvaal government. President Kruger fled, and both the Free State and the Transvaal were placed under military government, the Union Jack flying from the governor's residence. Thus nearly the whole of South Africa became part of the British Empire.



12. EGYPT.

In north-east Africa circumstances have led to Egypt being garrisoned by British troops and administered by British officials. Through Egypt lies the shortest route to India, and it is very important that the country should not fall into the hands of rulers unfriendly to Britain; especially as Britain possesses a very large number of shares in the Suez Canal, which connects the Mediterranean with the Red Sea, and through which nine-tenths of the traffic is carried on by British ships.

Egypt is nominally a part of the Turkish empire, and is ruled under the Sultan of Turkey by the khedive. In 1879 the Khedive Ismail, after a period of misrule and extravagance which almost ruined the country, abdicated; and Tewfik, his successor, was compelled to allow British and French officials to direct his government. Many of the native Egyptians resented this foreign "dual control", and in 1882 an ambitious soldier, Arabi Pasha, raised an insurrection and expelled the European officials.

England called on France to take a part in putting Arabi down; and when France refused, was compelled to act alone. Alexandria, which had been fortified by Arabi, and in which a massacre of Europeans had taken place, was bombarded by the British fleet, and Arabi was routed by Sir Garnet Wolseley at the fierce battle of Tel-el-Kebir (1882). Since that time, Britain has taken Egypt under her protection, with unmistakable benefit to the country, which is well governed by British officials, and has grown rapidly in wealth and population.

In 1883 further troubles occurred. A fanatic calling himself the Mahdi raised a rebellion in the Soudan against

the Egyptian government. The Egyptian garrisons were in danger of being annihilated, and an Egyptian force, sent to their relief under an English officer, General Hicks, was cut to pieces. General Gordon, a brave officer who knew the country well and had done good work in it years before, was then sent out by the British government to withdraw the Egyptian garrisons. He took no troops with him, believing that his personal influence would enable him to accomplish the work safely.

But on arriving at Khartoum, the capital of the Soudan, Gordon was surrounded by the Mahdi's forces. He made a gallant defence against them, but finding it impossible to withdraw the Egyptian garrison without help, he sent to London asking for British troops. Months passed before his request was granted. Then Sir Garnet, now Lord Wolseley, was sent to Egypt with a small force. On arriving, he made the greatest possible haste towards Khartoum, taking his army up the Nile in boats, with the help of skilled Canadian boatmen, and marching rapidly across the arid deserts. At the battle of Abu-Klea the Mahdi's forces were defeated, and the British pressed on, only to learn, when within 100 miles of Khartoum, that the city had been betrayed to the enemy, and that Gordon had been slain. The Soudan was then left to its fate, and England deeply mourned the loss of the general whose nobly quixotic character and romantic career made him so interesting a figure.

Thirteen years after the death of Gordon, a combined British and Egyptian force, under Sir Herbert Kitchener, pushed its way rapidly by rail along the Nile to attempt the reconquest of the Soudan. Preparations had been carefully made for years before. At the battle of Omdurman the Dervishes were totally defeated, and Khartoum

was captured, and brought again under Egyptian rule. The successful general was rewarded with a grant of money and the title of Lord Kitchener. His successor at the head of the Egyptian army, Sir Francis Wingate, in 1899 succeeded in tracking the Khalifa, the chief of the rebellious Dervishes. After a short fight, in which the Dervishes showed all their old bravery and scorn of death, the Khalifa was killed, and the rich province of the Soudan was freed from his cruel tyranny. The government of the province was at once reorganized under British officials, and the Soudan gave every sign of recovering and surpassing its former prosperity.

13. SOME MARKS OF PROGRESS.

The reign of Queen Victoria, the longest as well as by far the most illustrious in English history, was marked by vast progress in all directions. The dominions, the population, and the wealth of the empire beyond the seas increased enormously, while improvement was continually effected in the conditions of life at home. It is impossible to tell in small space all that was done during the reign, but a few of the more remarkable facts may here be mentioned.

Nothing in the reign was more remarkable than the growth of a feeling of sympathy with those whose lot is hard and unlovely. The workers in our factories and coal-mines were no longer left at the mercy of their employers, to be treated almost as slaves. Their employment was carefully regulated by the government. Better houses were built for the poor; good schools were provided in which their children were educated free; public baths were established for the encouragement of

personal cleanliness; libraries, art galleries, and museums were opened in very many towns, so that even the poorest might become acquainted with what is great and beautiful in books, pictures, and the world of nature.

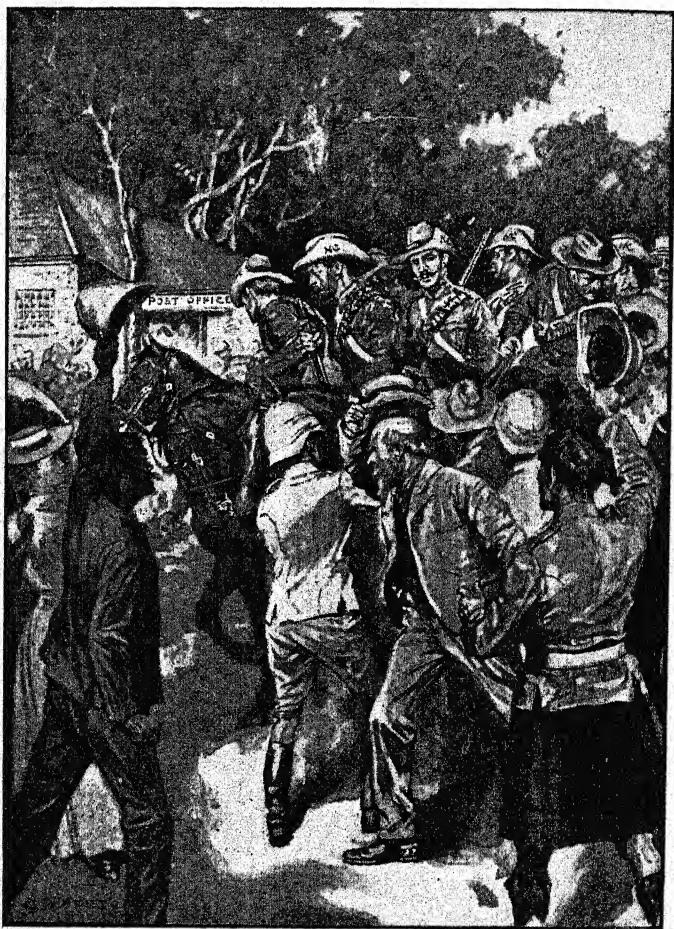
With the spread of education, crime diminished; and the roughest classes grew less brutal and coarse. Law's



Queen Victoria.

were passed to protect children and animals from cruelty; and hospitals and asylums were established, where the sick and the insane were nursed and tended.

Towns were better built, more thoroughly cleansed, and better lighted than they had previously been. Gas took the place of oil lamps, and towards the end of the reign the electric light began to take the place of gas. Open spaces and tastefully laid-out parks were maintained in all large cities, and even in the dingiest towns



The Relief of Ladysmith.

there were some spots where the grass was green and trees and flowers flourished.

Knowledge of what was going on in all parts of the world was brought to the people by large and cheap newspapers, which at the beginning of the queen's reign could not have been bought at four times the price. The electric telegraph conveyed messages in a few moments, not only between places in the British Isles, but across oceans and continents. The first telegraph was used in the year of the queen's accession, and the first permanent submarine cable to America was successfully laid in 1866.

In 1840 Sir Rowland Hill's scheme of a penny postage was adopted throughout Great Britain; before that time, the charge for carrying a letter increased as the distance increased, and sometimes a single letter cost as much as sixteen pence.

The increased use of machinery gave employment to many more people than could ever have found work under the old system of hand labour. It made goods more plentiful, and enabled manufacturers to supply them with greater rapidity. Railways, taking the place of the old coaches, and steamships, instead of the old sailing vessels, altogether changed the conditions of commerce and travel. At the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign the fastest steamship took from ten to fifteen days for the voyage to America; now the ocean greyhounds cross the Atlantic in five days.

The reign witnessed great engineering feats, of which the Forth Bridge and the Manchester Ship Canal may serve as examples. It saw in 1851 the first of the great exhibitions which have enabled all nations of the earth to know more of one another, their produce, and their manufactures. It bears on its records the names

of statesmen as great as any of their predecessors; of great writers and poets such as Wordsworth, Tennyson, Browning, Carlyle, Thackeray, and Dickens; of great scientists like Faraday, Darwin, Thomas Huxley, and Herbert Spencer; and of earnest workers for the good of humanity like Lord Shaftesbury, George Peabody, Cardinal Manning, Samuel Plimsoll, and the Baroness Burdett-Coutts.

The foregoing pages have shown, in a slight way, how the little island-kingdom of James I. has developed into the mightiest empire that ever existed. No race could have built up this empire unless it possessed the qualities of honesty, courage, energy, and endurance, and it is for every Briton to prove, by exhibiting the same qualities, that the men of to-day are worthy of their heritage. What the future of our vast empire will be, it is impossible to foretell; but while we have the fine examples of the past to animate us, while the hearts of Britons in far corners of the earth beat loyally in time with the hearts of Britons at home, while we have great and patriotic statesmen to guide the helm, we need not fear that the British Empire will suffer shipwreck.

“ We sail’d wherever ship could sail,
We founded many a mighty state;
Pray God our greatness may not fail
Through craven fears of being great.
Hands all round!

God the traitor’s hope confound !
To this great cause of Freedom, drink, my friends,
And the great name of England, round and round !”¹

¹ Lord Tennyson.

SUMMARY.

(N.B.—*The paragraphs in small type contain particulars not dealt with in the Reading Lessons.*)

THE REIGN OF JAMES THE FIRST (1603-1625).

1. The New King.—James I., descended both on the father and on the mother's side from Margaret Tudor, the eldest daughter of Henry VII., succeeded Elizabeth in 1603. He was in his thirty-seventh year, ungainly in appearance, weak in character, and wanting in common-sense and practical ability; so, though possessed of considerable learning, a keen wit, and some humour and shrewdness, he failed to secure the respect of his English subjects.

Almost at the very outset of his reign the Main Plot, for which Raleigh was condemned, and the Bye Plot were formed against his government.

His exaggerated opinion of his own abilities, and his belief in the Divine Right of Kings, led to the beginning of that struggle between King and Parliament which lasted till 1688.

2. Religious Parties.—At Newmarket, on the way to London, the Puritans presented to James the Millenary Petition, praying for reforms in the Church government and service. At the Hampton Court Conference, called in answer to this petition, James showed how strongly he was opposed to Puritanism; and the only valuable result of the conference was the publication, in 1611, of a revised translation of the Bible, the present authorized version.

The continued enforcement of the penal laws against Roman Catholics caused Robert Catesby and others to form the conspiracy known as the Gunpowder Plot. This was discovered in 1605, and a number of the conspirators executed.

3. Parliament.—Annoyed at James's treatment of the Puritans, and at his interference in elections, Parliament rejected the king's scheme for a union with Scotland. The increase, by royal authority, of the customs rates was another cause of bitterness. Though the judges declared them legal, Parliament protested against these impositions, and having rejected the Great Contract, whereby

James offered for an annual income of £200,000 to surrender certain feudal rights, it was dissolved.

On the death of Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, in 1612, the management of affairs fell, for a time, into the hands of Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset.

When that worthless favourite was found guilty by a jury of the murder of Sir Thomas Overbury he was pardoned by the king, though banished from Court.

Carr was succeeded in the king's favour by George Villiers, who was made Duke of Buckingham.

The death of Prince Henry, the king's eldest son, in 1612 was a national misfortune. The king, though he married his eldest daughter, Elizabeth, to a Protestant prince, Frederick, Elector Palatine, clung to his plan for an alliance between the royal families of Spain and England. But when the great Thirty Years' War broke out in 1619, popular clamour compelled James to send help to his son-in-law Frederick.

James, who was in great need of money, called together a Parliament in 1614. This Parliament, having refused supplies till it had discussed grievances, was dissolved without passing an act, and is therefore known as the Addled Parliament. His wish to please Spain had in many ways injured the king with his subjects. His harsh treatment of his cousin, Lady Arabella Stuart, and his sacrifice of Sir W. Raleigh to appease Spain increased still further his unpopularity.

4. The End of the Reign.—The Parliament of 1621 proceeded against some of the leading monopolists, and in the case of Lord Bacon revived a right not exercised by Parliament for over 150 years, the right of impeaching the royal advisers. The House entered also a protest in their journals against the king's assumption that they had no right to discuss foreign affairs. This the king himself tore out of the journals, and some of the leading members were imprisoned after the dissolution.

The visit of Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham to Madrid led to the Spanish match being broken off, and to an alliance with Holland against Spain.

5. The Ulster Settlement.—The First Colonies.—During this reign, by the efforts of Mountjoy and Chichester, Ireland was subdued, and a colony of Englishmen and Scotsmen planted in Ulster. In 1607 the first permanent settlement was made in Virginia, while Maryland (so called in honour of Henrietta Maria) was colonized early in the reign of Charles I.

In 1620 the more famous settlement known as New England was made by the Pilgrim Fathers. These were a body of Puritans,

who, having fled from England to Holland to escape persecution, now sought in America the religious freedom denied them at home, and the maintenance of their English nationality which they feared would be lost if they continued to dwell among foreigners.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES THE FIRST (1625-1649).

1. The Rule of Buckingham.—(1) Imperfectly educated, owing to ill-health in childhood, and believing earnestly in the divine right of kings, Charles seems to have regarded his ministers as tools to be used and then sacrificed if needful, and his subjects as beings with whom it was not necessary to keep faith. His first Parliament met in 1625, and was dissolved because it would not grant the supplies demanded, granted tonnage and poundage for only one year, and urged the enforcement of the laws against Roman Catholics.

The failure of the Expedition to Cadiz and the general mismanagement of affairs led the second Parliament to impeach Buckingham; and, to save his favourite, the king dissolved it.

2. The Rule of Buckingham.—(2) Eliot and other opponents of Buckingham in the Commons and in the Lords had been imprisoned, and were set free only on the remonstrance of the Houses. The attempts to replenish his exchequer, first by means of a so-called free gift and afterwards by a forced loan or benevolence, which the judges declared illegal, having failed, Charles summoned his third Parliament in 1628.

This Parliament drew up, and forced the king to pass, the famous Petition of Right; but when it proceeded further to draw up a "Remonstrance" it was prorogued.

Buckingham, whose first expedition to La Rochelle had been a complete failure, was murdered by Felton at Portsmouth, and Charles continued to raise money contrary to the Petition of Right.

3. The Tyranny.—(1) Laud, bishop of London, became the king's chief adviser, while of the popular leaders Saville and Wentworth—afterwards Earl of Strafford—went over to the king's side. When the Commons met they remonstrated against the action of Laud and the High Commission Court, and ordered the Farmers of the Customs who had levied tonnage and poundage not granted by Parliament to appear before them. The king refused to permit his officers to be prosecuted, and, led by Eliot, the Commons drew up their famous protest.

For this, Eliot and other eight members were sent to the Tower,

where Eliot was kept till his death in 1632; the king refusing even to allow his relatives to remove his body for burial.

4. The Tyranny.—(2) In 1630 Laud was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and forced on the whole nation the ritual in which he believed. As head of the High Commission Court he treated his opponents with great severity, while his re-issue of the Book of Sports gave great offence to the Puritan party.

Wentworth, after being President of the Council of the North, was made Lord Deputy in Ireland in 1633. He there established order, raised a standing army, introduced the linen manufacture, and made the king supreme. When the Scots rose in rebellion Charles sent for him and made him Earl of Strafford, 1640. In England the king revived the old tax called Ship-money. He levied the tax on the inland counties, and Hampden refused to pay it. The trial of the case, though the decision was in favour of the king, convinced the people that the tax was illegal.

5. The Tyranny.—(3) Having visited Scotland in 1633, Charles, by the advice of Laud, drew up a form of Liturgy, and attempted to force it on the Scots. The attempt led to the National Covenant, 1638, and to the famous Assembly at Glasgow which abolished Episcopacy. After the peace of Berwick, Charles called the Short Parliament, 1640; but dissolved it because it proceeded to discuss grievances before granting supplies. He then advanced against the Scots, who defeated his forces at Newburn, seized Newcastle, and compelled him to conclude the Treaty of Ripon.

The Long Parliament met on Nov. 3rd, 1640. It abolished the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission; released their victims; and imprisoned and impeached Strafford and Laud. When it appeared that the impeachment would fail, the Commons brought in a Bill of Attainder against Strafford. Notwithstanding his promises the king gave his assent to this measure, which became law, and Strafford was executed May 12, 1641.

6. The Great Rebellion.—(1) In abandoning Strafford Charles ruined his own cause.

Threatened with a fate like Strafford's, many of his supporters fled; Parliament seized entire power; compelled him to consent to an act declaring that it could not be dissolved without its own consent; made a grant of £300,000 to the Scots, and destroyed the whole fabric of tyranny.

The Irish Massacre of Protestants, in 1641, led Parliament to draw up the Grand Remonstrance, and present it to Charles on

his return from Scotland. In revenge he proceeded against Lord Kimbolton and Five members of the Commons for high treason.

He himself went to the House to seize them, but found that, having been warned, they had taken refuge in the city. Thither the Commons also withdrew for a time. On the 10th of January the king left London, and the members were brought back in triumph to Westminster.

Parliament, unable to trust the king, now demanded the right of appointing lord-lieutenants of the counties and officers of the militia. The king having refused his consent, they acted without it, and war broke out.

7. The Great Rebellion.—(2) In the struggle all sorts and conditions of men were to be found on both sides. As a rule there were more of the middle and trading classes on the side of Parliament, and of the country squires and their dependents on the side of the king. The south and east were for the Parliament, the west and north for Charles. Refused admission into Hull by Hotham, the king raised his standard at Nottingham, fought a drawn battle with the parliamentary army at Edgehill; and having advanced to Turnham Green on the way to London, retired to Oxford.

In the early part of 1643 matters went badly with the parliamentary forces. Sir Ralph Hopton beat Sir W. Waller in several engagements in the west, and captured Bristol. In the north the Earl of Newcastle, for the king, beat Lord Fairfax at Bramham Moor; and Hampden was killed at Chalgrove in a skirmish with Rupert's cavalry. Later in the year Essex and the Londoners raised the Siege of Gloucester, and fought a drawn battle with the king at Newbury. Newcastle was repulsed at Hull, and Cromwell and Manchester defeated the Royalist at Winceby in Lincolnshire.

Both parties now sought outside help: Charles from the Irish Catholics; Parliament from the Scots, with whom they entered into the agreement known as the Solemn League and Covenant.

8. Oliver Cromwell.—(1) Oliver Cromwell, born at Huntingdon, 1599, and educated at Huntingdon Grammar School and Cambridge University, married Elizabeth Bourchier, daughter of a London merchant, and represented Huntingdon in the Parliament of 1628-29. He sat for Cambridge in both the Short and Long Parliaments. Appointed Captain of Horse in 1642, and Colonel in 1643, he saw what was wanted for success; and by enlisting only religious men, chiefly Independents, he formed a notable regiment. To it the name Ironsides, first bestowed on its commander by Prince Rupert, after Marston Moor, was transferred.

Fairfax, having utterly routed the Irish at Nantwich, when joined by the Scots and by Cromwell, and Manchester, was able to lay siege to York and Newcastle.

Rupert, having relieved York, engaged the parliamentary forces at **Marston Moor**, and was utterly defeated, chiefly owing to Cromwell and his troopers.

The army of Essex, however, surrendered to the king at **Lostwithiel**, and Manchester failed to follow up the advantage gained at the second battle of **Newbury**.

9. Oliver Cromwell.—(2) Cromwell, as leader of the Independents, induced Parliament to remodel the army. Though the Scots had been forced, by the news of the victories of **Montrose**, to withdraw towards the north, the "New Model", under Cromwell and **Fairfax**, crushed the king's forces at **Naseby, 1645**, and speedily reduced the rest of the country. The king, who had taken refuge with the Scots at **Newark**, was in 1647 surrendered to the Commissioners of Parliament. Parliament quarrelled with the army, and the latter sent **Cornet Joyce** to seize the king at **Holmby House**. Both parties tried to come to terms with him, but he deceived both, and fled to the **Isle of Wight**. The **Second Civil War** broke out in 1648, but was quickly brought to a close.

Fairfax beat the royalists in the eastern counties and captured **Colchester**; while **Cromwell**, having reduced the **Welsh**, and captured **Pembroke Castle**, crushed a force of Scots under the **Marquis of Hamilton**, and of English under **Sir Marmaduke Langdale**, in August, near **Preston**.

The army, enraged at the king's duplicity, having excluded the Presbyterian members from Parliament, got the rest, called in derision the **Rump**, to appoint a **High Court of Justice**. By this court the king was found guilty of **High Treason**, and was beheaded at **Whitehall** on **January 30th, 1649**.

THE COMMONWEALTH (1649-1660).

1. Cromwell becomes Protector.—A Commonwealth was declared, the office of king abolished, and the management of affairs entrusted to a Council of forty-one. Cromwell having put down a mutiny of the **Levellers** in the army, took the command in **Ireland**, which he reduced to complete obedience in less than nine months by the exercise of great severity. Sent to **Scotland**, where **Charles II.** had been proclaimed king, he inflicted a crushing defeat on the Scots at **Dunbar**, on **September 3rd, 1650**, and a year later he gained his "crowning mercy" of **Worcester**.

The misgovernment of the **Rump** forced Cromwell to expel it in 1653, and to summon a "Council of Notables"—**Barebones Parliament**. After a few months' trial these resigned, and Cromwell,

under the Instrument of Government, became, at the request of the officers of the army, Lord Protector of the Commonwealth.

2. Cromwell's Difficulties.—In his first Parliament, which met September 3rd, 1654, there were representatives of England, Scotland, Ireland, and Wales; but, as it began to discuss the authority under which Cromwell held power, he was forced to dissolve it as soon as he could. Penruddock's rising in the west of England, easily suppressed though it was, led Cromwell to divide the country into districts, each governed by a Major-General. Though he treated Catholics and Episcopalians harshly, Cromwell enforced a previously unknown degree of religious toleration, and promoted, by wise regulations, the commerce of the country. His second Parliament offered him, in 1657, the title of King, a title he declined; but he was unable to form a satisfactory Second Chamber, so he dissolved Parliament. Worn out by anxiety for the welfare of the Commonwealth, and overwhelmed with sorrow for the loss of a favourite daughter, Cromwell died in 1658.

3. Foreign Affairs.—Never did England take a higher place in the estimation of Europe than she did under Cromwell. The Dutch were forced by the victories of Blake and Monk to beg for peace; Blake punished the pirates of Algiers and Tunis; the influence of Spain was depressed in Europe by the capture of Dunkirk, and in the colonies by the conquest of Jamaica, while the victories of Blake over the Spaniards at Santa Cruz and elsewhere greatly increased the fame of English seamanship. By a well-timed interference on behalf of the people of Piedmont, Cromwell showed himself to be the protector of the Protestants of Europe.

4. End of the Commonwealth.—Richard Cromwell succeeded his father. Trusting to the army, he dissolved the Parliament, with which the committee of officers had quarrelled. Acting on the advice of General Lambert he recalled the Rump, and finding himself without any real authority, resigned. The Rump and the officers quarrelled, and Lambert, imitating Cromwell, expelled the Rump, and formed a Committee of Safety. General Monk, in January, 1660, marched from Scotland at the head of his army and restored the Long Parliament, which, having made arrangements for the meeting of a Convention, dissolved itself. By the Convention, Charles II., who had issued the Declaration of Breda, was recalled, and entered London on May 29th.

THE REIGN OF CHARLES THE SECOND (1660-1685).

1. The Ministry of Clarendon.—Charles II., gay, unscrupulous, pleasure-loving, and sagacious, led the reaction against the severity of Puritan life and manners. Guided by Clarendon, the Cavalier or Pension Parliament, which met in 1661, passed a number of persecuting acts against dissenters.

These, spoken of as the Clarendon Code, consisted of (a) the Corporation Act (1661) excluding non-conformists from town councils; (b) the Act of Uniformity (1662), turning those who approved of the Solemn League and Covenant out of their churches; (c) the Five Mile Act (1664) forbidding the ejected ministers from living in their own parishes, or within five miles of a corporate town; (d) the Conventicle Act, punishing those taking part in religious meetings not sanctioned by the Episcopal Church.

Scotland and Ireland, in matters of trade, were again treated as foreign countries. In the former the attempt to force Episcopacy on the nation led to much suffering and persecution, and to a rising of the Covenanters who were defeated at Rullion Green. In the latter there was great discontent, both among the natives and among the soldier colonists established there by Cromwell, both parties complaining of the way they were treated by the government.

In 1665 the Great Plague carried off nearly 100,000 of the inhabitants of London, and in 1666 a large portion of the city was destroyed by the Great Fire. Colonial disputes led to a war with the Dutch in 1665. They were joined by the French in 1666. Although the English gained victories off Harwich, 1665, and off the Thames, 1666, the Dutch in 1667, during negotiations for peace, sailed up the Thames and burnt the shipping at Chatham. Clarendon, blamed for these disasters, was banished.

2. Charles the Pensioner of France.—The Cabal ministry entered into the Triple Alliance with Holland and Sweden, and Louis XIV. was forced to make peace at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668. By the secret Treaty of Dover, 1670, Charles became a pensioner of the French king, whom he joined in a war against the Dutch, 1672-74. In 1673 Parliament forced him to withdraw the Declaration of Indulgence issued in 1672, and passed the Test Act excluding Roman Catholics from government office. Peace was concluded with the Dutch, 1674, and William of Orange married the Princess Mary, daughter of his uncle, James, Duke of York. Several Catholics lost their lives for a fictitious Popish Plot which the informer Titus Oates pretended to have discovered.

3. The End of the Reign.—The new Parliament which met in 1679 having impeached Danby, the minister of Charles, introduced the Exclusion Bill, and passed the famous Habeas Corpus Act, was dissolved. Shaftesbury again introduced the Exclusion Bill in the Parliament which met in October, 1679, and it passed the Commons, but was rejected by the Peers in 1680. Taking advantage of the mistakes his opponents made in the Parliament which met at Oxford, 1681, Charles was able to dissolve the Parliament, and govern during the rest of his reign as an absolute monarch. For their supposed connection with the Rye House Plot, Lord William Russell and Algernon Sidney were executed, while the Earl of Essex committed suicide in the Tower. Charles II. died in 1685.

By getting the judges to declare the charters of the City of London and other Whig burghs forfeited, and only restoring them on conditions that would exclude the Whigs from Parliament, Charles thought to secure a permanent court or Tory majority in the House of Commons. In the persecution of the Covenanters of Scotland there was a short lull after Rullion Green, but it shortly afterwards broke out again more severely than ever. Archbishop Sharp was murdered in 1679; and the Covenanters of the west, driven to despair, rose in rebellion and defeated Claverhouse at Drumclog, 1679; but were defeated by Monmouth at Bothwell Bridge. Monmouth went back to England, and the Duke of York took the management of affairs in Scotland and punished the rebels with extreme severity.

THE REIGN OF JAMES THE SECOND (1685-1689).

1. Monmouth's Rebellion, &c.—Narrow in intellect, obstinate and unimaginative, vicious, and lacking in the tact and geniality which distinguished his brother, James was utterly unfit for the task he set for himself.

Having promised the Council to maintain the government and religion established by law, he proceeded to break his promise by levying duties without waiting for parliamentary sanction, and by publicly celebrating the illegal Catholic service.

Argyll landed in Scotland, 1685, in hopes of rousing his clansmen and the people of the west; but the expedition failed, and Argyll and other leaders were executed.

The Duke of Monmouth, who landed at Lyme and gained a few unimportant successes, was totally defeated at Sedgemoor, captured, imprisoned in the Tower, tried, and beheaded. The punishment of those who had taken part in the "rising" for Monmouth was of the cruellest kind. The assize held by Jeffreys, the Chief-Justice, is known as the Bloody Assize; hundreds were executed, hundreds of others were sold as slaves to the planters of the West Indies, while others suffered fine and imprisonment.

By the exercise of the dispensing power which the servile judges declared legal, James appointed Roman Catholics to the council and to the army and navy. In 1686

he revived the old High Commission Court in the form of a Court of Ecclesiastical Commission, with Jeffreys as chairman; he greatly increased the army, retaining the extra forces raised at the time of Monmouth's rebellion; dismissed Protestants from their offices at Court, and gave their places to Roman Catholics.

In 1687 he issued the Declaration of Indulgence, suspending the laws against dissenters and Catholics; he also expelled the fellows of Magdalen College, Oxford, for choosing John Hough, one of their own number, for president, and refusing to elect a Catholic nominated by the king.

Massey, a Catholic, was made Dean of Christ Church.

The Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge was deprived of his office for refusing to admit Father Francis, a Catholic, as Master of Arts.

2. The Revolution.—In July, 1687, Parliament, which had not sat for some time, was dissolved. The second Declaration of Indulgence was issued in 1688, and the clergymen of the Church of England were ordered to read it from their pulpits. On Sancroft, the Primate, and six other bishops presenting a petition to the king against this order, they were imprisoned and brought to trial for uttering a seditious libel. The bishops were acquitted; and William of Orange was invited by some of the leading men of both parties to come and save the country, and protect his wife's rights. The birth of James's son led to this strong measure. William accepted the invitation. James, warned by the King of France, began, when it was too late, to reverse his measures. William landed at Torbay, 5th November, 1688, and marched to London, being joined on the way by many of the leading nobles. James, having sent his queen and her son to France, managed, after the failure of the first attempt, to follow them, and the Convention, which met in 1689, having declared the throne vacant, offered the crown to William and Mary.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM AND MARY (1689-1702).

1. Importance of the Revolution.—Scotland.—With the revolution the long struggle between the king and the Parliament came to a close. By accepting the Declaration (afterwards Bill) of Rights, William and Mary acknowledged the limited character of the English monarchy. William was the actual ruler, and though cold and stiff in manner, and wanting in the tact which made his wife so popular, he proved an excellent king. His reign was greatly troubled by the plots of Jacobites and non-jurors.

Viscount Dundee raised the Highlands for James, and defeated Mackay at the Pass of Killiecrankie. Dundee died in the moment of victory, and the wise measures adopted by the government specially restored peace, though William and his advisers have justly been severely blamed for the Massacre of Glencoe.

2. Ireland.—France.—In Ireland the Catholics took the side of James, and an attempt was made to disarm the Protestants, who, in alarm, took refuge in the towns of Londonderry and Enniskillen. These places were besieged, and held out with heroic fortitude.

The heroes of the siege of Londonderry were the brave Scotsman, Adam Murray, and the joint governors Major Baker and the Rev. G. Walker.

The siege was raised, and on the same day the Protestants of Enniskillen defeated their opponents at Newtown Butler. William landed in Ireland in 1690, and defeated his father-in-law in the battle of the Boyne.

The victories of William and Marlborough in the south of Ireland, 1690, and of Ginkel at Athlone, Aughrim, and Limerick, brought the war to an end, 1691.

In the war with France, William, though defeated at Steenkerke, 1692, and Landen, 1693, managed so well, especially after the death of Marshal Luxembourg, that he captured Namur, 1694, and forced Louis to agree to the Peace of Ryswick, 1697.

At sea, during the war, the English and Dutch fleets, after being defeated off Beachy Head, 1690, gained a great victory over the French off Cape La Hogue in 1692: but the Mediterranean merchant-fleet suffered severely in 1693. Queen Mary died of small-pox in 1694, and on the death of the Duke of Gloucester, the son of the Princess Anne, the Act of Settlement was passed, 1701.

The First Partition Treaty (1698), for the division of the Spanish dominions among the different claimants, was followed, on account of the death of the principal claimant, the Prince of Bavaria, by the Second Partition Treaty in 1700.

When Charles of Spain died, the French king, breaking faith, acted on his will which left the Spanish crown and dominions to Louis's grandson, Philip of Anjou. This action, and the acknowledgment of the Pretender on the death of James II., made William form the Grand Alliance and prepare for war with France. The king was killed by a fall from his horse in 1702.

3. Some Great Facts of the Reign.—Though the country was almost constantly at war during William's reign, many important constitutional changes were introduced. To it we owe Party Government, the Toleration Act, the Mutiny Act, which

indirectly secured the annual assembling of Parliament, and the important practice of appropriating the supplies. This reign saw also the beginning of the National Debt; the establishment of the Bank of England by William Paterson, and others; an improved issue of silver coins, carried out under the direction of Sir Isaac Newton; and the establishment of the "freedom of the press".

During this reign also the Bank of Scotland was founded. The failure of the Darien Scheme,—a failure largely due to the action of William and of the English Parliament,—caused so great discontent in Scotland that it seemed at one time as if it were certain that the two countries would go to war with each other.

THE REIGN OF ANNE (1702-1714).

1. The War of the Spanish Succession.—Queen Anne held by the Grand Alliance, and intrusted the conduct of the war against France to Marlborough, who was steadily supported at home by Lord Godolphin, the ablest financier of his time. By the capture of a number of fortresses in the Netherlands, 1702 and 1703, Marlborough secured the frontier of Holland. Then anticipating a French advance on Vienna, he hastened through Germany, joined forces with Prince Eugene, and almost destroyed the French army at Blenheim, on the Danube, 1704.

After defeating the French at Ramillies, 1706, Oudenarde, 1708, and Malplaquet, 1709, and capturing Lille and other great border fortresses, Marlborough was recalled. During the war Gibraltar had been captured, in 1704, by Sir G. Rooke. Notwithstanding the brilliant successes of Peterborough the war in Spain had not been successful. Peace was concluded at Utrecht, 1713.

2. Home Affairs.—Whig and Tory, High Churchman and Low Churchman became more clearly recognized as distinct parties in the state. The great event of the reign was the Act of Union with Scotland, 1707. The commissioners appointed in 1702 to treat with the Scots were unable to come to terms, the Scots demanding a share in the trade with the colonies and plantations. Smarting from the suffering and loss caused by the failure of the Darien Scheme, the Scots Parliament passed the Act of Security, to which finally the queen gave her assent. Under this act Scotland was put into a state of defence. The queen, with the authority of the English Parliament, appointed commissioners, and the Act of Union, after much opposition in the Scots Parliament, became law, 1707.

A quarrel between the queen and the Duchess of Marlborough and the mistaken policy of the Whigs in prosecuting Dr. Sacheverell

led to the Tory ministry of Harley and St. John. By the latter's influence the persecuting Schism Act was passed; but the quarrels between the leaders, and the prompt action of Lord Shrewsbury, the Lord Treasurer, defeated their plans for restoring the exiled family on the death of the queen. This took place in 1714.

PROGRESS DURING THE STUART PERIOD.

This period is remarkable for the growth of the powers of Parliament, which not only succeeded in obtaining the control of taxation, of the army, and of the judges, but in establishing the principle that the ministers of the crown are responsible to it.

During the same period the English colonial system was founded and considerably extended in India, Africa, the West Indies, and North America. With the establishment of English colonies and factories there was an enormous increase in English trade and manufactures. This was more especially the case from the time of the Commonwealth, and was accompanied by a rapid growth of cities and towns. The largest towns were London and Bristol; though there was little in the dirty, badly-lighted and badly-watched streets of the time resembling the city of to-day, nor was the life of the merchants, even the richest, who usually lived over their shops and warehouses, like the life of our present city magnates.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FIRST (1714-1727).

1. The Jacobites.—South Sea Bubble.—A foreigner, and able only with great difficulty to make himself understood by his English subjects, caring more for his Electorate of Hanover than for the empire of which he had become the head, George I. ceased to preside at the meetings of the Council, and government, as at present, by responsible ministers began.

George supported the Whigs, who were led by Townshend and his brother-in-law, Robert Walpole. Marlborough was restored to his place as Captain-General. Of the late queen's advisers Bolingbroke and Ormond, when impeached, fled to the Pretender, while Oxford, after two years' imprisonment in the Tower, was liberated, his enemies having failed to prove their charges against him.

The Riot Act was passed in 1715. In the same year a Jacobite rising took place in Scotland under the Earl of Mar, and in England under Mr. Foster, member for Northumberland.

Checked at Sheriffmuir, Mar withdrew to Perth, where he was

joined by the Pretender. On the very day on which Sheriffmuir was fought, the rebels in the north of England, numbering, with the Highlanders sent from Mar's army, about 4000 men, surrendered at Preston to an army of about 2000 under General Wills. The Pretender and Mar withdrew early in 1716 to France, and in the same year the Septennial Act was passed.

In 1717 Townshend and Walpole left the Cabinet.

The Triple Alliance was followed by the Quadruple Alliance against Spain, which, after the destruction of its fleet off Cape Passaro by Byng and the failure of the expedition to Scotland in support of the Pretender, was compelled to agree to terms.

The collapse of the South Sea Company Scheme brought Walpole again to the front. He had from the beginning persistently opposed the scheme, and he now came forward with a plan for lessening the sufferings it had caused.

2. Sir R. Walpole.—(1) Born at Houghton, in Norfolk, in 1676, and educated at Eton and Cambridge, Walpole entered Parliament as member for King's Lynn in 1702. As Secretary of War in 1707 and Treasurer of the Navy, 1709, he gave great offence to the Tories, and was expelled the House. In 1715 he became Chancellor of the Exchequer and First Lord of the Treasury. Resigning in 1717, he was restored to power in 1721 on the resignation of Sunderland. His moderation, his good sense, his financial ability, his sound commercial views, and his love of peace greatly benefited the country, and show him to have been one of the greatest as he was the first of modern Prime Ministers. Always ready to conciliate, when Swift's *Drapier's Letters* roused so much feeling against the new bronze coinage in Ireland, he at once withdrew it.

By the influence of Walpole a formal reconciliation was brought about between the king and the Prince of Wales in 1720. The country narrowly escaped being dragged into a war with Charles XII. of Sweden, 1717; while the Treaty of Vienna, 1725, between Spain and Germany led to the counter-treaty of Hanover between Great Britain, France, and Prussia. The king died of apoplexy at Osnabrück in June, 1727, only a few months after the death of his wife, Sophia Dorothea of Celle, in 1726, who spent the last thirty years of her life in confinement.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE SECOND (1727-1760).

1. Sir R. Walpole.—(2) George II. wished to make his favourite, Sir Spencer Compton, Prime Minister; but he was induced by his queen, Caroline of Anspach, to continue Sir R. Walpole in power, and that great minister in return arranged the Civil List on a more than usually liberal scale. The queen, who managed the king, heartily co-operated with Walpole, and it was at this time that

party government began to take definite form and the position of Prime Minister to assume that importance which it now holds.

2. Sir R. Walpole.—(3) Though Walpole withdrew his excise scheme in 1733 his commercial policy was on the whole very successful, and the country and her colonies prospered. The Porteous Riots in Edinburgh in 1736 provoked the queen, and in the mild measures finally adopted we see the spirit of Walpole's policy. By the queen's death in 1737 he lost his strongest supporter.

National clamour drove this great peace minister to declare war with Spain in 1739. The war was badly managed: *Porto Bello* was captured, but the English were repulsed at *Carthagena*: Walpole was blamed; the election of 1741 left him without a sufficient majority in the House, and he resigned in February, 1742. He was made Earl of Orford, and he died in 1745.

3. War and Rebellion.—George, who supported Maria Theresa, induced that princess to buy off Frederick the Great of Prussia by ceding Silesia to him, and in 1743 he himself joined her against France. He beat the French under Marshal Noailles at *Dettingen*; but in 1745 his son, the Duke of Cumberland, was defeated by Marshal Saxe at *Fontenoy*.

Encouraged by this defeat of the king's forces, Charles Edward determined to make a bold push for the British throne. Escaping the English cruisers he landed at *Moidart*, in *Inverness*, with a few followers. Joined by some of the Highland chiefs, he marched southwards, captured *Edinburgh*, defeated Sir J. Cope at *Prestonpans*, and after a compulsory delay of six weeks marched into England. Joined only by a few of the English Jacobites, when he reached *Derby* he was forced by the opinion of his council to retreat. After a skirmish at *Clifton*, and a brilliant little victory over General Hawley at *Falkirk*, the rebels were totally defeated at *Culloden*, 1746. Prince Charles, after many romantic adventures, escaped to France. The Duke of Cumberland, on account of his cruelty to the rebels, became known as the "Butcher". The people of the Highlands were disarmed and forbidden to wear their national dress, and the authority of the chiefs was declared unlawful; but it was chiefly by the formation of the famous Highland regiments that that part of the country was won over to loyalty.

4. Britain and France.—**William Pitt.**—(1) Peace was concluded at *Aix-la-Chapelle*, 1748, conquests made during the war being restored. Trade jealousies and the attempt of the French to

confine the English in America to a strip of land along the Atlantic sea-board soon again led to war. General Braddock's force was surprised and defeated near **Fort Duquesne**, 1755, and in 1756 the **Seven Years' War** began. At first matters went badly with England and Prussia. **Minorca** was captured by the French, and **Byng**, who had failed to relieve it, was tried and shot.

Beaten at **Hastenbeck**, the Duke of Cumberland concluded the disgraceful convention of **Kloster Zeven**.

Then the king was forced to place **William Pitt** in power. A cornet of dragoons, born in 1708, he had entered Parliament as member for **Old Sarum**. His eloquence contributed to the overthrow of **Walpole**, but the king disliked him because he had attacked ministers for sacrificing the interests of this country to those of **Hanover**. Upright, unselfish, patriotic, inspiring all who came in contact with him with his own enthusiasm, his countrymen, like **Frederick the Great**, recognized his genius, and the years of his power are among the most remarkable in our history.

5. William Pitt (2).—Canada.—Pitt helped **Frederick** of Prussia with money and enabled him to carry on the struggle with Austria, France, and Russia. In America, **Louisburg**, which had been captured by the colonists in 1745 and afterwards restored, was again taken by **Generals Amherst and Wolfe**; and although the English, under the incompetent **Abercrombie**, were repulsed at **Ticonderoga**, **Fort Duquesne** was captured. Later the heroic **Wolfe** defeated **Montcalm**, the French general, on the Heights of **Abraham**. The result of this victory was the surrender of **Quebec**, and in 1760 the whole of **Canada** was yielded to Britain.

The French were driven out of **Hanover** by **Prince Ferdinand** of **Brunswick**, who defeated them at **Minden**. **Admiral Pocock** defeated their fleet in the **East Indies**; **Admiral Boscawen** defeated their **Toulon** fleet off **Lagos**; and **Admiral Hawke** their **Brest** fleet in **Quiberon Bay**.

6. Beginning of the Indian Empire.—In India the English and French had long been rivals. **Dupleix**, their governor, thought to make the French supreme, and his measures had so far been very successful. **Madras**, though afterwards restored, was captured. The capture, the seeming crowning success, drove a young clerk, **Robert Clive**, to volunteer as a soldier, and his genius not only undid the work of **Dupleix**, but completely destroyed the French power in India. His capture and heroic defence of **Arcot** in 1751 was the turning-point of the struggle. After a visit to England,

he returned to India, and at Plassey, in 1757, he defeated Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, thus punishing that cruel tyrant for his unprovoked attack on Fort William and his cruelty to the prisoners whom he thrust into the Black Hole of Calcutta.

The Methodist movement, a religious revival begun about 1730, under the two Wesleys and Whitefield, spread rapidly throughout the country, and at a later period found expression in such charitable efforts as those of John Howard (1726-90), and Robert Raikes (1735-1811). George II. died in 1760. His eldest son, Frederick, whom he hated and despised, had died in 1751.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE THIRD (1760-1820).

1. William Pitt.—(3) Guided by his mother and her favourite, the Earl of Bute, George III. declined Pitt's advice to declare war with Spain, and the great minister resigned. The Spaniards joined the French; but such were the British successes that both countries were glad to conclude the Peace of Paris, 1763. The clamour against his policy compelled Bute to resign, and George Grenville became Prime Minister. During his administration Wilkes was prosecuted for an article in the *North Briton* attacking the speech from the throne; the colonies were irritated by the stricter enforcement of the navigation laws; and the Stamp Act was passed.

The king disliked the great Whig families, dismissed them from offices at court, and treated their chiefs with scant courtesy; but Grenville having offended the princess-dowager and Bute by the Regency Bill, he was compelled to accept a Whig ministry.

Rockingham became Prime Minister, and, with the approval of Pitt, repealed the Stamp Act.

2. William Pitt.—(4) The Duke of Grafton then became Prime Minister; but Pitt, who had been made Earl of Chatham, had all real power, 1766. His health, however, failed, and he resigned, in 1768. The House of Commons now entered on its struggle with John Wilkes. Returning from exile Wilkes was chosen to represent them by the electors of Middlesex. The Commons gave the seat to his opponent, Colonel Luttrell. This struggle continued till 1774, when Wilkes was allowed to take his seat. In 1782 the proceedings against him were expunged from the books of the House. The attacks on the Duke of Grafton in the famous Letters of Junius led to that minister's resignation in 1770. He was succeeded by Lord North, during whose administration there was a sharp struggle between the House and the public as to the right of the press to report the proceedings of the House.

3. William Pitt.—(5) Some Boston citizens having boarded ships laden with taxed tea, and thrown it into the harbour, the

government, notwithstanding the protests of Pitt and others, deprived Massachusetts of its charter, and transferred the custom-house from Boston to Salem. A congress was held, and the colonists determined on resistance. After the battles of Lexington and Bunker's Hill, 1775, the Congress at Philadelphia issued a Declaration of Independence. George Washington was made commander-in-chief of their forces; and, though the British troops were better equipped and disciplined, and fought better in the open than the colonial, such was the stupidity of their commanders that all these advantages were thrown away. The turning-point of the war was the surrender of Burgoyne, at Saratoga, 1777. France, and afterwards Spain and Holland, joined the colonists. Some ministers proposed to acknowledge their independence, and Pitt, in 1778, spent almost his last breath in protesting against the dismemberment of the empire.

4. End of the War.—The Second Pitt.—(1) The surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown overturned the ministry.

Its popularity had already been greatly shaken by the "no popery" riots, 1780, and the loss of Minorca. On the death of the Marquis of Rockingham, who succeeded Lord North, Lord Shelburne held power for a few months, and was succeeded by the Coalition Ministry of North and Fox. These, defeated on their India Bill, gave place to the Ministry of Pitt, the younger, the second son of the Earl of Chatham.

After the surrender at Yorktown matters went better for Britain. The victory of Rodney over De Grasse, in the West Indies, and the successful defence of Gibraltar by General Elliot, made her enemies willing to grant terms that, on the whole, were neither unfavourable to her nor dishonourable. The young Prime Minister secured a splendid majority for himself in the Parliament which met in 1784, and devoted his great powers to schemes for benefiting his country.

5. The Second Pitt (2).—War with France.—A truly great peace minister, Pitt's administration of affairs was marked by progress in almost every direction. In 1793, however, he was forced into a war with France, where the people, maddened by oppression and suffering, had risen in rebellion, proclaimed a republic, and dethroned and executed their king and queen. By Britain the war was conducted chiefly at sea. Hood destroyed the French fleet at Toulon, 1793, and Howe defeated their northern fleet off Ushant, 1794. The Dutch and Spaniards joined the French, but in 1797 Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson defeated the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, and Admiral Duncan routed the Dutch fleet off Camperdown.

These victories were won at a time when the treatment of our sailors was so bad that it had driven them to mutiny at Spithead and at the Nore.

In 1798 Nelson destroyed, in Aboukir Bay, the fleet which had accompanied Napoleon and his army to Egypt.

6. The Second Pitt (3).—The Union with Ireland.—

The French Revolution secured the sympathy of many of the people of Ireland. From 1782 the Irish Parliament had been practically independent, but not truly representative of the Irish nation. Pitt did what he could to remove legitimate grievances; but after the treasonable correspondence of Irish leaders with the French Directory, the failure of Lazare Hoche's proposed invasion of Ireland, and the suppression of the Irish Rebellion of 1798 at Vinegar Hill, he came to the conclusion that the only hope for peace between the two countries lay in a closer union. Notwithstanding great opposition, both in England and Ireland, the Legislative Union of the two countries was carried, and took effect in 1801. The king refused his consent to the repeal of the Catholic Disabilities, and as Pitt thought this necessary for the peace and good government of Ireland, he resigned.

7. The Second Pitt (4).—Napoleon Bonaparte.—

Repulsed by Sir Sidney Smith at Acre, Napoleon returned to France, leaving in Egypt the army intended for the ruin of our Indian Empire. Made First Consul, he crushed the Austrians at Marengo and Hohenlinden, 1800. By the victory of Copenhagen, Nelson, in 1801, broke up the armed neutrality league of the northern powers, and the temporary Peace of Amiens was concluded in 1802. The renewal of the war in 1803 was signalized by the imprisonment of English tourists in France. Trusting in the help of the fleets of Holland and Spain, Napoleon gathered a large army at Boulogne for the invasion of Britain. But the vigilance of Nelson rendered his schemes useless. That great admiral, having followed the French and Spanish fleets across the Atlantic and back, almost completely destroyed them on October 21st, 1805, at the battle of Trafalgar, made memorable by the hero's own death. Napoleon had already given up his scheme of invasion, and directed his arms against Austria. The day before Trafalgar Mack capitulated at Ulm; and in December the Russians and Austrians were defeated at Austerlitz. These disasters were Pitt's death-warrant. Utterly worn out he died early in 1806, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

8. The Indian Empire.—The victory of Sir Eyre Coote at Wandewash, in 1760, and the capture of Pondicherry, in 1761, utterly overthrew the power of the French in India. In 1774, Warren Hastings, under the new regulations, was appointed first

Governor-General. He reformed the Indian Civil Service, created courts of justice, established a police, and greatly increased the revenue. He met with the bitterest opposition from the members of his council; but, notwithstanding this, he curbed the power of the Mahrattas, 1778-82, and by the energy with which he hurried up reinforcements, enabled Sir Eyre Coote to defeat Hyder Ali, at Porto Novo, July 1st, 1781, and so save Madras.

After several other victories peace was made with Tippoo, the son of Hyder Ali, in 1784.

On his return to England, Hastings was brought to trial for misgovernment, but was acquitted. This famous trial lasted for seven years, 1788 to 1795.

Fox, defeated on the India Bill, 1783, was succeeded by Pitt, who established the "Board of Control", in 1784, which continued to manage Indian affairs till 1858.

Tippoo, the Sultan of Mysore, the bitter enemy of the English, though he had been defeated by Cornwallis in 1791, and stripped of half his territory, refused to dismiss the foreign officers in his service, and rebelled in 1799.

The expedition under Lord Harris, which was sent against Tippoo by Lord Mornington, the Governor-General, was entirely successful, and Seringapatam was taken by storm by General Baird. Sir Arthur Wellesley, who distinguished himself at the siege of Seringapatam, gained further renown by his victories over the Mahrattas at Assaye and Argaum, 1803. These victories, and those of General Lake, broke the power of the great Mahratta Confederacy.

9. The Peninsular War.—Wellington.—Having defeated the Prussians at Jena, in 1806, Napoleon issued from Berlin his famous decree against British trade. Britain replied to his decrees and victories by the "Orders in Council", and by forcibly seizing and bringing to England the Danish Fleet, lest it should fall into his hands. In 1807, in alliance with Spain, Napoleon seized Portugal. Next year he deposed the king of Spain and made his brother, Joseph, king. The fruits of the victories of Sir Arthur Wellesley at Roliça and Vimiero were lost by the Convention of Cintra, 1808; and Sir John Moore, who succeeded to the command, after a skillfully conducted retreat, died gloriously at Corunna, in 1809.

Wellesley returned to the Peninsula, captured Oporto, drove the French out of Portugal, and defeated Victor at Talavera, 1809. Turning on Massena, whom Napoleon had sent with superior forces to drive the British into the sea, Wellington inflicted on him a sharp check at Busaco, 1810, and then withdrew behind the fortified

lines of Torres Vedras. At Fuentes de Onoro he defeated Massena in 1811, while Beresford defeated the French at Albuera, and Hill defeated them at Merida the same year. The storming of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos, and the defeat of Marmont at Salamanca opened the way to Madrid, 1812; but it was not till 1813, after the great victory of Vittoria, that Wellington was strong enough to drive the French out of Spain. Having made himself master of the border fortresses of St. Sebastian and Pampeluna he followed them into France, defeating Soult at Orthez, Tarbes, and Toulouse, 1814. Napoleon, who had invaded Russia in 1812, and defeated the Russians at Smolensko and Borodino, was forced by the burning of Moscow to retreat in mid-winter. Austria, Prussia, and Russia united against him, and after the defeat of Leipzig he was forced back to Paris, and was compelled to abdicate.

10. War with America.—Waterloo.—The ill-feeling caused by the "Orders in Council" led to a war between Great Britain and the United States in 1812. At first success, especially at sea, was mostly with the States; but, after a little, the English proved their superiority in such naval battles as those between the Shannon and Chesapeake, 1813, and between the Endymion and President, 1814. Their attack on Canada repelled, their capital burned, and their trade destroyed, the United States gladly concluded the Treaty of Ghent, and so ended a war they had undertaken without provocation, and in which they had been the chief sufferers.

Napoleon, having escaped from Elba, again made himself ruler of France. At the head of a large army he advanced against the allies. He defeated the Prussians at Ligny; but Ney's attack on the British position at Quatre Bras was repulsed. Wellington, however, fell back to Waterloo to keep in touch with the Prussians, and there Napoleon attacked him on Sunday, 18th June, 1815. From morning to night the British stoutly held their ground, and on the advance of the Prussians to their help, the French army broke up in utter confusion. Napoleon surrendered, and was banished to the island of St. Helena, where, six years later, he died.

Out of this great struggle England issued triumphant: easily supreme at sea, her colonial empire extended and consolidated, she herself had suffered less than any of the other countries engaged.

11. After the Great War.—For some years after the conclusion of peace the condition of the working classes in Great Britain and Ireland was miserable in the extreme. The decrease in the army and navy added greatly to the number of competitors for

employment, while the decrease in the demand for our manufactures made work more scarce. To add to the miseries of the workers the duties on corn and other food-stuffs made food scarce and dear. Riots broke out in various parts of the country: ricks were burned, machinery was destroyed, and the country seemed on the verge of a revolution. The Habeas Corpus Act was suspended, and a meeting at St. Peter's Fields, near Manchester, to protest against the corn-laws was dispersed by cavalry and several innocent people killed, 1819. George III. died in 1820. For ten years he had been insane.

On August 27th, 1816, Sir E. Pellew, afterwards Lord Exmouth, bombarded Algiers and forced the Dey to free his Christian slaves. The Holy Alliance, entered into by the Emperors of Austria and Russia and the King of Prussia in 1815, was in reality directed against the popular liberties of Europe. The Princess Charlotte, who died in 1817, was sincerely mourned, while the contempt and dislike for her father the Regent and for his advisers was increased by the treatment of that amiable princess, and by the passing of the infamous Six Acts, 1819.

THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FOURTH (1820-1830).

1. Sir Robert Peel.—(1) Born near Bury in Lancashire, 1788, the son of a wealthy cotton-spinner, Peel was educated at Harrow and at Christ Church, Oxford, where he took a double first in 1808. He entered Parliament as member for Cashel in 1809, and from 1812 to 1818 he held office as Chief Secretary for Ireland. He opposed the claims of the Catholics, and reorganized the police force, but resigned in 1818. In 1822 he became Home Secretary, and great reforms were introduced in the criminal laws; capital punishment being greatly restricted. He disagreed with Canning about Catholic Emancipation, and resigned; but on the death of that minister, he joined the cabinet of the Duke of Wellington, and though Oxford rejected him, as member for Westbury he introduced and carried the Catholic Emancipation Act in 1829. In the same year the Metropolitan Police force was introduced in London, to take the place of the old city watchmen, and they became known as "Bobbies" or "Peelers".

The discontent at the beginning of the reign manifested itself in such schemes as the Cato Street Conspiracy of Arthur Thistlewood. The suicide of the unpopular Castlereagh and the measures adopted by Canning and Huskisson diminished discontent and distress. During the reign the chief foreign events were: the civil wars in Spain and Portugal; the defeat of the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at Navarino, 1827; the successful war of the Russians against the Turks, 1828-29; and the acknowledgment of Greek independence by the Treaty of Adrianople, 1829.

In India Lord Hastings suppressed the Pindarees in 1817, and next year broke the power of the Mahrattas. While Lord Amherst was Governor-General the Burmese were defeated, 1824-26, Assam was added to the company's territories, and the strong fortress of Bhartpoor in Central India was captured.

The Test and Corporation Acts were repealed in 1828.

THE REIGN OF WILLIAM THE FOURTH (1830-1837).

The opening of the Liverpool and Manchester railway, revolutions in France and Belgium, and the Irish Repeal agitation of O'Connell marked the beginning of the reign.

1. Sir Robert Peel.—(2) The rejection of the Reform Bill proposed by Lord John Russell in 1831 led to riots at Bristol and elsewhere. The measure was stoutly opposed by Peel in the Commons, and the opposition of the Lords was only overcome when the king gave Lord Grey, the Prime Minister, power to create a sufficient number of peers to ensure the bill passing. By this measure the great middle class of traders and farmers got a share of that political power which had previously been almost entirely in the hands of the land-owners.

2. Sir Robert Peel.—(3) During the next eight years, save for a few months as Prime Minister in 1834-35, Peel remained the leader of the opposition. It was a period of great legislative activity. In 1833 an Act for the Abolition of Slavery was passed, the slave-owners receiving £20,000,000 as compensation. The same year saw the first Factory Act passed, for the protection of the child-slaves in mines and factories at home, and in 1834 the first of those grants in aid was made, which were the beginning of our present national system of education. The new Poor Law, in 1834, introduced great improvements in the treatment of paupers.

The Municipal Reform Act of 1835 swept away much of the jobbery and corruption which up to that time had characterized the management of municipal affairs.

The chief foreign events during this reign were: (a) the unsuccessful Polish rebellion in 1831; (b) the separation of Belgium from Holland, 1830; (c) the defeat of Don Carlos in Spain by the aid of the British legion under Sir De Lacy Evans, 1835-40; (d) the restoration of Maria II. and the expulsion of Dom Miguel from Portugal, 1835; and (e) the war between the Sultan and Mehemet Pasha, 1831-33. At home, both in England and Ireland, there was much agitation on the subject of tithes and in Scotland on the subject of Church Extension.

THE REIGN OF VICTORIA (1837-1901).

1. Sir Robert Peel.—(4) On the death of William IV. his niece Victoria, then only eighteen years old, became queen. Lord Melbourne, her first Prime Minister, had great influence with the young queen, who married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg in 1840; but he was compelled to give place to Peel in 1841.

Although at first he refused to abolish the duties on corn, that able minister greatly improved the trade of the country by a very

extensive all-round reduction of duties. In the matter of grain, he was satisfied with introducing an improved sliding-scale of duties, 1842; but the famine in Ireland, caused by the failure of the potato crop, 1845, and the distress in Great Britain, occasioned by the bad harvest of that year, brought matters to a crisis; and in 1846, though opposed by the majority of his old supporters, the Corn Importation Bill was passed, and cheap bread secured for the workers.

2. Sir Robert Peel.—(5) Defeated on an Irish Coercion Bill on the very day this important measure passed the Lords—June 26th, 1846—Peel at once resigned. He continued to support the free-trade policy of his successors till his death, the result of an accident, in 1850. The accident took place on the 29th of June, exactly four years after his resignation. He died on the 2nd of July and was buried at Drayton, in Staffordshire, while the people of Great Britain and Ireland mourned the loss of one of whose capacity and honesty they had the most perfect assurance.

3. Chartism and Reform.—Dear food, low wages, and want of work made people agitate for the extension of the franchise.

The Chartist riots throughout the country in 1838, and at Birmingham and Newport in 1839, and the Rebecca riots in Wales in 1843 showed how dissatisfied the great bulk of the people were, and it was in vain that Feargus O'Connor and other leaders of the movement were prosecuted and imprisoned.

Their demands were embodied in a document known as the Charter. The famous six points have already ceased to be contentious, the most important of them having been conceded. The agitation was kept up till 1848, when the proposed monster meeting at Kennington Common failed, and Chartism as a political force gradually died. On the rejection, in 1836, of Lord John Russell's moderate measure of reform (the Adullamites, led by Robert Lowe, having voted against it) the Tory ministry of Lord Derby was forced, by the clamour in the country and by the Hyde Park riots, to pass in 1867 a much larger measure of reform, granting household suffrage in the boroughs. Mr. Gladstone's Ballot Act of 1871, and the Third Reform Act, 1885, established household suffrage in the counties, and, accompanied as the latter was by redistribution, brought parliamentary representation into its present condition.

4. Ireland and Home Rule.—Daniel O'Connell's repeal agitation was carried on with great vigour till 1843, when the meeting at Clontarf was forbidden, and O'Connell and his chief

supporters brought to trial. They were condemned, but the sentence was reversed on appeal to the House of Lords.

The failure of O'Connell's agitation was followed by the secession of Smith O'Brien and the "Young Ireland Party" from the Repealers. Smith O'Brien's futile rebellion in 1848, and the conviction and transportation of its leaders, caused the collapse of the "Young Ireland" party. The agitation was continued by the Fenian movement, begun by Stephens in March, 1858. Under it there was an attempted invasion of Canada in 1868, and several unsuccessful risings in Ireland in 1867.

To pacify Ireland Mr. Gladstone passed his Act to put an end to the Establishment of the Church of Ireland in 1869, and his Irish Land Act in 1870.

Notwithstanding these measures a Home Rule Association, with Mr. Isaac Butt as Chairman, was founded in 1870. Mr. Butt died in 1879; but under the skilful management of Mr. Parnell the movement grew in importance.

In 1886 Mr. Gladstone adopted the Home Rule cause. His Home Rule Bill, introduced in that year, was defeated in the Commons. In 1891 Mr. Parnell ceased to lead the party, and he died the same year. The Home Rule Bill of Mr. Gladstone's fourth ministry was thrown out by the Lords in 1893, and since then the question has fallen somewhat into the background.

5. The Crimean War.—An invasion of Turkish territory by the Russians in 1853, and the destruction of the Turkish fleet at Sinope, led England and France to declare war on Russia in 1854. The allied armies invaded the Crimea, defeated the Russians at the battle of Alma on September 20th, 1854, and laid siege to Sevastopol. On October 25th an attack in force by the Russians on the allied position at Balaklava was repulsed. The battle was made memorable by the heroic charge of the "Light Brigade", and by the bravery of the "Heavy Brigade" and of the 93rd Highlanders. An attempt to surprise the British position on November 5th led to the battle of Inkerman, in which the Russians were repulsed with heavy loss. The sufferings of our soldiers in the trenches before Sevastopol excited great indignation in the country, and caused a change of ministry. Sevastopol was captured in 1855, shortly after Kars, a Turkish town in Armenia, had surrendered after a heroic defence by General Williams. The efforts of Florence Nightingale and her heroic band of lady nurses to alleviate the sufferings of our wounded soldiers during this war, have made her name honoured throughout the world.

6. Indian Empire before the Mutiny.—An English force retiring from Cabul, which had been occupied during the

war with Dost Mahomed in 1838, was massacred in the Khyber Pass in 1841. Next year General Pollock recaptured Cabul, rescued many prisoners, and destroyed the fortifications of the city.

Sinde was conquered by Sir Charles Napier in 1843.

In 1845 the Sikhs, a religious sect in the north-west of India, on the death of the founder of their kingdom, Ranjit Singh, an ally of the British, invaded our territories but were defeated in four great battles and their capital, Lahore, taken. A second Sikh war began in 1848, and after the battles of Chillianwallah and Gujerat, 1849, their territory, the Punjab, was annexed.

The Earl of Dalhousie, the Governor-General, 1848-56, did much to advance the well-being of the people of India. A successful Burmese War, 1850 to 1853, led to the conquest of Lower Burmah; and the misgovernment and profligacy of the King of Oudh made Lord Dalhousie annex that province in 1856.

7. Lord Lawrence.—(1) John Lawrence, the son of Colonel Lawrence, was born at Richmond, in Yorkshire, in 1811. He was educated at the East India Company's Civil Service College, Haileybury, and went to India in 1829. After a visit to England for his health, he returned to India in 1842. His merits were gradually recognized, and in 1848 he was made joint commissioner of the Punjab. He made roads, arranged the taxes, drew up a code of laws, and secured the respect and confidence of all classes.

8. Lord Lawrence.—(2) In May, 1857, the Sepoys, or native soldiers, at Meerut, broke into open mutiny, killed some Europeans, and fled to Delhi. The measures of Lawrence were effective. He was able to keep order in the newly-annexed province, and even to help in suppressing the mutiny. Everywhere the Bengal army mutinied. At Cawnpore and elsewhere Europeans were massacred, and Sir Henry Lawrence, the chief commissioner of Oudh, was besieged in the residency at Lucknow.

Never did men struggle more heroically than the English in India. An English army, reinforced from the Punjab, captured Delhi. Havelock defeated Nana Sahib and captured Cawnpore, and, joined by Sir James Outram, relieved the garrison of Lucknow. He and his small force were besieged there, and were relieved by Sir Colin Campbell in November. During 1858 Campbell and Sir H. Rose stamped out the rebellion.

9. Lord Lawrence.—(3) The great services rendered by

Lawrence were recognized. He was pensioned and made a baronet. The government of the East India Company was abolished in 1858, and in 1863 Lawrence became **Viceroy**. In 1866, during the dreadful famine in Orissa and Bengal, he did his utmost for the poor natives. When he retired he was made **Baron Lawrence of the Punjab**. He was the first chairman of the London School Board. In 1879 he died and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

Other governor-generals have followed in his footsteps. Petty wars on the frontiers, like that of Chitral, 1895; the war with Afghanistan, 1879-80, chiefly remarkable for the British defeat at Maiwand, the rapid march of Lord Roberts from Cabul to Candahar, and his brilliant victory over Ayooob Khan near Candahar; and the conquest of Upper Burmah, and deposition of King Theebaw in 1885, have greatly extended the British dominions in India.

The visit of the Prince of Wales in 1876, the generally fair treatment of the natives, the order and progress of the country, and the development, to a certain limited extent, of self-government, have all tended to increase Indian loyalty to the British Power.

Among other British possessions in Asia must be noted the fertile island of Ceylon, the great commercial town of Singapore, the capital of the Straits Settlements, Hong Kong, ceded by the Chinese in 1841, and Wei-Hai-Wei, ceded in 1893.

10. Canada and Australasia.

When the war, 1776-83, between Britain and the revolted colonies concluded, many of the loyal colonists settled in Upper Canada and in New Brunswick. In 1791 Canada was divided into two provinces, Ontario and Quebec. During the war with the United States, 1812-14, both remained loyal.

Disturbances in both provinces in 1837-38 led to Lord Durham's mission. This resulted in the reunion of the provinces, 1840. In 1867 the Dominion of Canada, a federation of all the British colonies in North America except Newfoundland—Newfoundland was acknowledged British by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713—was formed. The Canadian Pacific Railway across the continent was opened in 1885.

A Fenian raid on Canada was vigorously repelled by the Dominion militia in 1868. Disturbances in Rupert's Land—now Manitoba—were suppressed by Colonel Wolseley in 1870, and an insurrection under Louis Riel was put down in 1885, and the ringleaders executed. Between the Dominion and the United States there has been a good deal of friction on Fishery and on other questions.

In 1788 the first British settlement was made at Port Jackson in Australia. It was a penal settlement, and only very slowly was the great island, made known to us by Captain Cook, occupied. In 1851 the discovery of gold caused a rush of emigrants to Australia.

In 1901 the five Australian Colonies, New South Wales, West Australia, South Australia, Victoria, and Queensland, together with Tasmania, were united under one parliament to form the Commonwealth of Australia, the colonies becoming states of the federal commonwealth. New Zealand, which was only made a colony in 1841, is now one of the most flourishing and most patriotic of the self-governing dependencies of Britain.

11. Africa.—The earliest British settlements in Africa were made about the year 1591. Of recent years the enterprise of trading companies, and the discoveries of explorers, have greatly extended the British dominions in Africa. Cape Colony was taken from the Dutch in 1806, and Natal, which the discontented Boers had occupied, was proclaimed a British colony in 1843. The Boers founded the Orange Free State in 1836, and it was declared independent in 1854. They founded also the Transvaal in 1848, which was declared independent in 1852. In 1871 Griqualand West, with the recently-discovered diamond-mines, was added to Cape Colony. The Transvaal, brought to the verge of anarchy and bankruptcy by misgovernment, was annexed in 1877. This led to the Zulu war, the disaster at Isandula, 1879, and the defeat of the Zulu king at Ulundi, 1880. The Boers then revolted, and in 1881 defeated the British at Laing's Nek, Ingogo, and Majuba Hill.

The discovery of gold in the Transvaal has led to an influx of immigrants, chiefly British, and the unjust treatment of these by the Boers led to the Boer war in 1899 and to the annexation of the Transvaal and the Free State in 1900.

The British territories have of late been greatly extended in West Africa, where Ashanti was subdued, 1896; in South and Central Africa under the Chartered Company, and in East Africa including Zanzibar.

12. Egypt.—The Khedive Ismail abdicated in 1879, and under his successor, Tewfik, there was a rebellion, under Arabi Pasha, 1882. Alexandria was bombarded, Arabi was defeated, and Egypt placed under the control of British officials, 1883.

In the same year the Egyptian army of Colonel Hicks was defeated and cut to pieces by the Mahdi in the battle of El Obeid.

In 1884 Osman Digna, as general for the Mahdi, defeated a force under Baker Pasha, but was defeated by General Graham at El-Teb and Tamanieb.

General (Chinese) Gordon, who had gone at the government's request to Khartoum, was besieged there, and the force sent to his

relief arrived too late, though General Stewart gained a brilliant victory at Abu Klea, 1885.

After this the Soudan was abandoned, though General Earle gained a brilliant victory over the rebels at Kirbekan, and General Graham again defeated Osman Digna at Hasheen.

In 1890 Mr. (afterwards Sir) H. M. Stanley succeeded in relieving Emin Pasha, the governor of the Equatorial Province, and in 1898, thirteen years after Gordon's death, Lord Kitchener defeated the Dervishes at Omdurman.

China. In the first Chinese war (or opium war), 1839-42, the Chinese were forced to pay an indemnity of 21,000,000 dollars, to open five ports for foreign trade, and to cede Hong Kong to Britain. The dispute regarding the *Lorcha Arrow*, begun in 1856, was brought to an end by the Treaty of Tientsin; but war broke out again in 1860, and the English and French captured Peking, and forced the Chinese to pay a large indemnity, and to extend the trading privileges of foreigners. Fanatical outbursts, shown in the murder of our missionaries—the last in 1895,—have caused difficulties; but on the whole the bulk of the trade between China and Great Britain and her colonies has been steadily increasing of late years.

DATES OF CHIEF EVENTS UNDER STUARTS, 1603-1714.

	A.D.
James I. king, - - - - -	1603-1625
Hampton Court Conference, - - - - -	1604
Gunpowder Plot, - - - - -	1605
Settlements in Ulster, - - - - -	1609-1612
Authorized Version of Bible, - - - - -	1611
Impeachment of Bacon, - - - - -	1621
Charles I. king, - - - - -	1625-1649
Petition of Right, - - - - -	1628
Wentworth lord-deputy in Ireland, - - - - -	1633
Laud made Archbishop of Canterbury, - - - - -	1633
Ship-money resisted by Hampden, - - - - -	1635
Attempt to force a Liturgy on Scotland, - - - - -	1637
The National Covenant, - - - - -	1638
Long Parliament met, - - - - -	1640
Strafford executed, - - - - -	1641
Court of High Commission abolished, - - - - -	1641
Court of Star Chamber abolished, - - - - -	1641
The Grand Remonstrance, - - - - -	1641
Affair of Five Members, - - - - -	1642
Civil War begins, - - - - -	1642
First Battle of Newbury, - - - - -	1643
Solemn League and Covenant, - - - - -	1643
Battle of Marston Moor, - - - - -	1644
Second Battle of Newbury, - - - - -	1644
Self-denying Ordinance, - - - - -	1645
Laud executed, - - - - -	1645
Battle of Naseby, - - - - -	1645
Charles I. given up to Parliament, - - - - -	1647

	A.D.
Pride's Purge, - - - - -	December, 1648
Charles I. executed, - - - - -	January, 1649
The Commonwealth, - - - - -	1649-1660
Cromwell in Ireland, - - - - -	1649-1650
Battle of Dunbar, - - - - -	1650
Battle of Worcester, - - - - -	1651
Navigation Act passed, - - - - -	1651
Blake's battles with Dutch fleet, - - - - -	1652-1653
Cromwell expels Long Parliament, - - - - -	1653
Cromwell Lord Protector, - - - - -	1653
Blake's exploit at Canaries, and his death, - - - - -	1657
Cromwell's death, - - - - -	1658
Charles II. king, - - - - -	1660-1685
Earl of Clarendon chief minister, - - - - -	1660-1667
Second Dutch War, - - - - -	1665-1667
Plague of London, - - - - -	1665
Fire of London, - - - - -	1666
Dutch fleet in Medway and Thames, - - - - -	1667
Cabal Ministry, - - - - -	1667-1673
Triple Alliance against France, - - - - -	1668
Secret Treaty of Dover, - - - - -	1670
Third Dutch War, - - - - -	1672-1674
Suspending Power claimed by king, - - - - -	1672
Test Act passed, - - - - -	1673
Earl of Danby chief minister, - - - - -	1673-1679
Princess Mary marries Prince of Orange, - - - - -	1677
The Popish Plot, - - - - -	1678
Habeas Corpus Act, - - - - -	1679
Rye House Plot, - - - - -	1683
James II. king, - - - - -	1685-1689
Monmouth's rebellion, - - - - -	1685
Second Declaration of Indulgence, - - - - -	1688
Seven Bishops tried, - - - - -	1688
Prince of Orange lands at Torbay, - - - - -	November, 1688
{ William III., - - - - -	1689-1702
{ and Mary II., to 1694, - - - - -	
Mutiny Act passed, - - - - -	1689
Toleration Act, - - - - -	1689
Battle of Killiecrankie, - - - - -	1689
Bill of Rights, - - - - -	1689
Siege of Londonderry, - - - - -	1689
Battle of Boyne, - - - - -	1690
Massacre of Glencoe, - - - - -	1692
Battle of La Hogue, - - - - -	1692
Battle of Steenkerke, - - - - -	1692
Battle of Landen, - - - - -	1693
National Debt began, - - - - -	1692
Bank of England founded, - - - - -	1694
Freedom of Press, - - - - -	1695
William III. takes Namur, - - - - -	1695

DATES OF CHIEF EVENTS.

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	A.D.
Peace of Ryswick, - - - - -	1697
First Partition Treaty, - - - - -	1698
Second Partition Treaty, - - - - -	1700
Grand Alliance, - - - - -	1701
Act of Settlement, - - - - -	1701
Anne queen, - - - - -	1702-1714
War of Spanish Succession, - - - - -	1702-1713
Battle of Blenheim, - - - - -	1704
Capture of Gibraltar, - - - - -	1704
Battle of Ramillies, - - - - -	1706
Battle of Almanza, - - - - -	1707
Act of Union, - - - - -	1707
Battle of Oudenarde, - - - - -	1708
Battle of Malplaquet, - - - - -	1709
Dr. Sacheverell's Trial, - - - - -	1710
Treaty of Utrecht, - - - - -	1713

DATES OF CHIEF EVENTS UNDER HANOVERIAN SOVEREIGNS, 1714-1896.*

George I. king, - - - - -	1714
First Jacobite rebellion, - - - - -	1715
Septennial Act, - - - - -	1716
South Sea Scheme, - - - - -	1711-1720
Walpole prime minister, - - - - -	1721-1742
George II. king, - - - - -	1727
Porteous Riot (Edinburgh), - - - - -	1736
War of Austrian Succession, - - - - -	1741-1748
Battle of Dettingen, - - - - -	1743
Battle of Fontenoy, - - - - -	1745
Young Pretender's rebellion, - - - - -	1745-1746
Battle of Prestonpans, - - - - -	1745
Battle of Falkirk, - - - - -	1746
Battle of Culloden, - - - - -	1746
Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, - - - - -	1748
New Style (Calendar) adopted, - - - - -	1752
William Pitt (the elder) in power, - - - - -	1757-1761
Seven Years' War, - - - - -	1756-1763
Battle of Minden, - - - - -	1759
Hawke's victory (Quiberon Bay), - - - - -	1759
Battle of Quebec, - - - - -	1759
Conquest of Canada, - - - - -	1760
George III. king, - - - - -	1760-1820
Capture of Havana, - - - - -	1762
Treaty of Paris, - - - - -	1763
Prosecution of Wilkes, - - - - -	1763

* For events in Indian history see separate table.

	A.D.
Grenville's Stamp Act, - - - - -	1764
Attack on tea ships in Boston harbour, - - - - -	1773
American Declaration of Rights, - - - - -	1774
War of American colonists, - - - - -	1775
Battle of Bunker's Hill, - - - - -	1775
American Declaration of Independence, - - - - -	July 4th, 1776
British surrender at Saratoga, - - - - -	1777
Death of Chatham, - - - - -	1778
British surrender at Yorktown, - - - - -	1781
Defence of Gibraltar, - - - - -	1779-1782
Rodney's victory in West Indies, - - - - -	1782
Gordon Riots (London), - - - - -	1780
Peace of Versailles, - - - - -	1783
William Pitt minister, - - - - -	1783-1801
Trial of Warren Hastings, - - - - -	1788-1795
French Revolution, - - - - -	1789
Execution of Louis XVI., - - - - -	1793
War with French Republic, - - - - -	1793
Lord Howe's victory off Ushant, - - - - -	June 1st, 1794
Victory off Cape St. Vincent (Sir J. Jervis), - - - - -	1797
Mutinies at Spithead and Nore, - - - - -	1797
Battle of Camperdown (Duncan), - - - - -	1797
Irish rebellion, - - - - -	1798
Battle of the Nile (Nelson), - - - - -	1798
Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland, - - - - -	1801
Armed Neutrality (Russia, Sweden, and Denmark), - - - - -	1801
Battle of Copenhagen (Nelson), - - - - -	1801
Peace of Amiens, - - - - -	1802
Napoleon Bonaparte emperor, - - - - -	May, 1804
Battle of Trafalgar, - - - - -	October, 1805
Death of Pitt, - - - - -	February, 1806
Napoleon's Berlin Decree, - - - - -	November, 1806
Abolition of British Slave-trade, - - - - -	1807
Bombardment of Copenhagen (seizure of Danish fleet), Sept.,	1807
Peninsular War begins, - - - - -	August, 1808
Battle of Roliça, - - - - -	August, 1808
Battle of Vimiero, - - - - -	August, 1808
Convention of Cintra, - - - - -	August, 1808
Battle of Corunna, - - - - -	January, 1809
Passage of the Douro, - - - - -	May, 1809
Battle of Talavera, - - - - -	July, 1809
Battle of Busaco, - - - - -	September, 1810
Wellington in lines of Torres Vedras, - - - - -	October, 1810
Battle of Fuentes de Onoro, - - - - -	May, 1811
Battle of Albuera, - - - - -	May, 1811
Ciudad Rodrigo taken, - - - - -	January, 1812
Badajoz taken, - - - - -	April, 1812
Battle of Salamanca, - - - - -	July, 1812
Battle of Vittoria, - - - - -	June, 1813
San Sebastian taken, - - - - -	August, 1813

	A.D.
Battle of Toulouse, - - - - -	April, 1814
War with United States, - - - - -	1812-1814
Treaty of Ghent, - - - - -	December, 1814
First Congress of Vienna, - - - - -	January, 1815
Battle of Waterloo, - - - - -	June 18, 1815
Peace of Paris, - - - - -	November, 1815
Second Congress of Vienna, - - - - -	1816
Bombardment of Algiers, - - - - -	1816
Lord Sidmouth's Six Acts, - - - - -	1819
George IV. king, - - - - -	1820-1830
Cato Street Conspiracy, - - - - -	1820
Corporation and Test Acts repealed, - - - - -	1828
Catholic Emancipation Act passed, - - - - -	1829
William IV. king, - - - - -	1830-1837
First Reform Act, - - - - -	1832
Abolition of Slavery in British dominions, - - - - -	1834
New Poor Law, - - - - -	1834
Municipal Reform Act, - - - - -	1835
Victoria queen, - - - - -	June 20, 1837
Chartists give trouble, - - - - -	1837-1848
Anti-Corn-Law League formed, - - - - -	1838
Repeal of Corn Laws, - - - - -	1846
Sir Robert Peel died, - - - - -	1850
Great Exhibition in Hyde Park, - - - - -	1851
Duke of Wellington died, - - - - -	September, 1852
Crimean War, - - - - -	1854-1856
Treaty of Paris, - - - - -	March, 1856
Volunteer force established, - - - - -	1859
Second Reform Act, - - - - -	1867
Irish Church Act (Disestablishment), - - - - -	1869
Irish Land Act, - - - - -	1870
Elementary Education Act, - - - - -	1870
Ashantee War, - - - - -	1874
The Berlin Treaty, - - - - -	1878
Zulu War, - - - - -	1879
Boer War, - - - - -	1881
Egyptian War, - - - - -	1882
Soudan War, - - - - -	1884-1885
Third Reform Act, - - - - -	1884-1885
Home Rule Bill rejected in Commons, - - - - -	June, 1886
Queen's Jubilee celebrated, - - - - -	June, 1887
Home Rule Bill rejected in Lords, - - - - -	1892
Salisbury-Devonshire government, - - - - -	1895
Jameson's Raid on the Transvaal, - - - - -	1896
Battle of Omdurman, - - - - -	1898
Boer War, - - - - -	1899
Transvaal and Orange Free State annexed, - - - - -	1900
Death of Queen Victoria, - - - - -	1901

TABLE SHOWING HOW AND WHEN THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF BRITAIN HAVE BEEN ACQUIRED.

NAME	OBTAINED BY	DATE.
AFRICA—		
Ascension, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1815
Cape Colony, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1815
East Africa, - - - -	Cession to Company, -	1888
Gold Coast and Lagos, - -	Conquest and cession, -	1663-1861
Mauritius, &c., - - - -	Conquest and cession, -	1810-1814
Natal, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1843
Niger Protectorate, - - -	Cession to Company, -	1884
St. Helena, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1673
Sierra Leone and Gambia, -	Transfer from Company, -	1807
AMERICA—		
Bahamas, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1629
Barbados, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1605
Bermuda, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1612
Canada Proper, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1759-60
	Treaty cession, - -	1763
Columbia, &c., - - - -	Transfer to Crown, -	1858
Dominica, - - - -	Cession, - - -	1763
Falkland I. and South Georgia, -	Treaty cession, - -	1770
Fanning, Penrhyn, and Christmas I.,	Annexation, - - -	1888
Grenada, &c., - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1763
Guiana, - - - -	Conquest and cession, -	1803-1814
Honduras, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1798
Jamaica, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1655
Manitoba, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1813
Montserrat, &c., - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1632
New Brunswick, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1763
Newfoundland, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1713
N.-W. Territories, - - - -	Charter to Company, -	1670
	Conquest, - - -	1627
Nova Scotia, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1713
Prince Edward Island, - - -	Conquest, - - -	1745, 1756-63
St. Christopher, Nevis, and Anguilla,	Settlement, - - -	1623, '25, '59
St. Vincent, - - - -	Cession, - - -	1763
Tobago, St. Lucia, &c., - -	Cession and conquest, -	1763-1803
Trinidad, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1797
ASIA—		
Aden and Socotra, - - - -	(Aden) Conquest, - -	1839
Ceylon, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1801
Cyprus, - - - -	Convention with Turkey, -	1878
Hong Kong, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1841
India ¹ (including Burmah), - -	Conquest, - - -	Begun 1757
Labuan, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1847
North Borneo, - - - -	Cession to Company, -	1877
Straits Settlements, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1785-1824

¹ See separate table.

NAME.	OBTAINED BY	DATE.
AUSTRALASIA—		
Fiji, - - - - -	Cession from the Natives,	1874
Hervey Islands, - - - - -	Cession, - - - - -	1888
Kermadec Islands, - - - - -	Cession, - - - - -	1886
New Guinea, - - - - -	Annexation, - - - - -	1884
New South Wales, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1787
New Zealand, - - - - -	Purchase, - - - - -	1840
Queensland, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1824
South Australia, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1836
Tasmania, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1803
Victoria, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1834
Western Australia, - - - - -	Settlement, - - - - -	1826
EUROPE—		
Gibraltar, - - - - -	Conquest, - - - - -	1704
Malta, &c., - - - - -	Treaty cession, - - - - -	1814

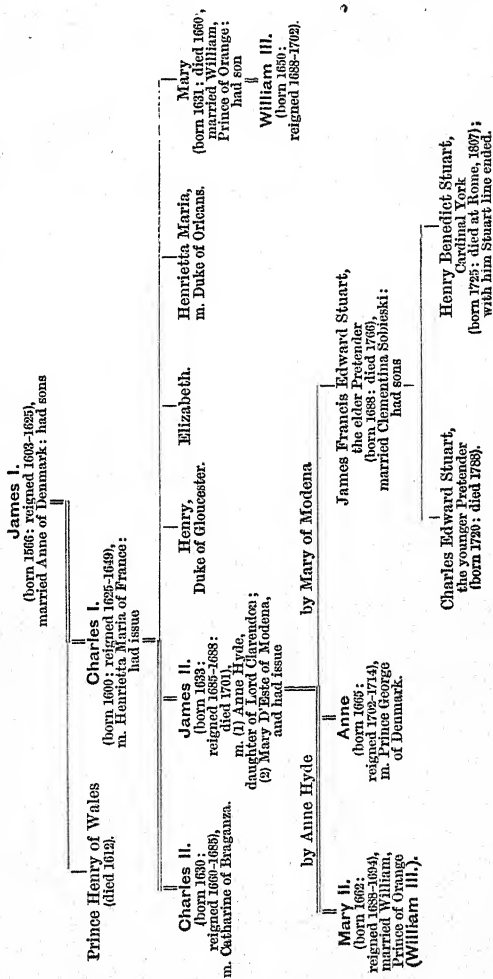
DATES IN INDIAN HISTORY.

First Charter granted to the East India Company, -	Decr.,	1600
First Factory established at Surat, -	-	1611
Factory at Fort St. George or Madras founded, -	-	1639
Factory at Hoogli or Calcutta, -	-	1642
Bombay ceded by the Portuguese, -	-	1662
Calcutta purchased, -	-	1698
Clive takes Arcot, -	-	1751
Battle of Plassey, -	-	1757
French defeated at Wandewash by Sir Eyre Coote, -	-	1760
Warren Hastings governor of Bengal, -	-	1772
Hyder Ali defeated Porto Novo, -	-	1781
War with Tippoo, -	-	1790-92
Seringapatam stormed, -	-	1799
Battle of Assaye, -	-	1803
Burmese War, -	-	1824-26
Suttees abolished, -	-	1829
Afghan War, -	-	1838-42
War in Scinde, -	-	1843
First Sikh War, -	-	1845
Second Sikh War, -	-	1848
Punjab annexed, -	-	1849
Burmese War, -	-	1851
Oudh annexed, -	-	1856
The Mutiny, -	-	1857
The Government of the East India Company ceases, -	-	1858
The Queen proclaimed Empress of India, -	-	1876
Afghan War, -	-	1878-80
Upper Burmah annexed, -	-	1886
Relief and annexation of Chitral, -	-	1895

GREAT AUTHORS OF THE PERIOD.

- | | |
|--|---|
| William Shakespeare (1564-1616), | First Folio edition of Plays, 1623. |
| Francis Bacon (1561-1626), | <i>Novum Organum</i> , 1620. |
| John Milton (1608-1674), | <i>Paradise Lost</i> , 1667. |
| John Bunyan (1628-1688), | <i>The Pilgrim's Progress</i> (first part), 1678. |
| John Dryden (1631-1700), | <i>Abraham and Achitophel</i> , 1681. |
| Isaac Newton (1642-1727), | <i>Principia</i> , 1687. |
| John Locke (1632-1704), | { <i>Essay concerning the Human Understanding</i> , 1690. |
| Daniel Defoe (1661-1731), | <i>Robinson Crusoe</i> , 1719. |
| Joseph Addison (1672-1719), | { <i>Tatler</i> , 1709-11. |
| Richard Steele (1672-1729), | { <i>Spectator</i> , 1711-12. |
| Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), | <i>Gulliver's Travels</i> , 1726. |
| Alexander Pope (1688-1744), | <i>The Rape of the Lock</i> , 1712. |
| James Thomson (1700-1748), | <i>The Seasons</i> , 1727-30. |
| Samuel Richardson (1689-1761), | <i>Clarissa Harlowe</i> , 1750. |
| Henry Fielding (1707-1754), | <i>Tom Jones</i> , 1749. |
| Samuel Johnson (1709-1784), | { <i>Dictionary</i> , 1755 (Boswell's <i>Life of Dr. Johnson</i> , 1791). |
| David Hume (1711-1776), | <i>History of England</i> , 1754-61. |
| Laurence Sterne (1713-1768), | <i>Tristram Shandy</i> , 1759-1767. |
| Tobias Smollett (1721-1771), | <i>Humphrey Clinker</i> , 1771. |
| Oliver Goldsmith (1728-1774), | <i>The Vicar of Wakefield</i> , 1766. |
| Adam Smith (1723-1790), | <i>The Wealth of Nations</i> , 1776. |
| Edward Gibbon (1737-1794), | { <i>The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire</i> , 1776-1788. |
| William Cowper (1731-1800), | <i>The Task</i> , 1785. |
| Robert Burns (1758-1796), | First edition of Poems, 1786. |
| Edmund Burke (1729-1797), | { <i>Reflections on the French Revolution</i> , 1790. |
| William Wordsworth (1770-1850), | <i>The Excursion</i> , 1814. |
| Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834), | <i>The Ancient Mariner</i> , 1798. |
| Walter Scott (1771-1832), | <i>Waverley Novels</i> , 1814-1831. |
| Jane Austen (1775-1817), | <i>Pride and Prejudice</i> , 1813. |
| George, Lord Byron (1788-1824), | <i>Childe Harold</i> , 1812-1813. |
| John Keats (1795-1821), | <i>Endymion</i> , 1818. |
| Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822), | { <i>The Cenci</i> , 1819; <i>Prometheus Unbound</i> , 1820. |
| Charles Lamb (1775-1834), | <i>Essays of Elia</i> , 1823. |
| Henry Hallam (1777-1859), | { <i>Constitutional History of England</i> , 1827. |
| Thomas Carlyle (1795-1881), | <i>The French Revolution</i> , 1837. |
| Thomas, Lord Macaulay (1800-1859), | <i>History of England</i> , 1848-61. |
| John Stuart Mill (1806-1873), | <i>Political Economy</i> , 1848. |
| Elizabeth Barrett Browning (1809-1861), | <i>Aurora Leigh</i> , 1857. |
| Charles Darwin (1809-1882), | <i>On the Origin of Species</i> , 1859. |
| Alfred, Lord Tennyson (1809-1892), | { <i>Maud</i> , 1855; <i>Idylls of the King</i> , 1859-85. |
| William Makepeace Thackeray (1811-1863), | <i>Vanity Fair</i> , 1847-48. |
| Charles Dickens (1812-1870), | <i>Pickwick Papers</i> , 1837. |
| Robert Browning (1812-1889), | <i>The Ring and the Book</i> , 1868-69. |
| Charlotte Brontë (1816-1855), | <i>Jane Eyre</i> , 1837. |
| George Eliot (Marian Evans) (1819-1880), | <i>Adam Bede</i> , 1859. |
| John Ruskin (1819-1899), | <i>Modern Painters</i> , 1843. |
| Herbert Spencer (1820-), | { <i>A System of Synthetic Philosophy</i> , begun in 1862. |

House of Stuart—1603–1714 (with Commonwealth 1649–1660).



2. *House of Hanover (1714-)*.George I.
(1714-1727).George II.
(1727-1760).Frederick,
Prince of Wales
(died 1721).George III.
(1760-1820).George IV.
(1820-1830).Princess
Charlotte
(died 1817).Frederick,
Duke of York,
died 1827.William IV.
(1830-1837).Edward,
Duke of Kent,
died 1820.Victoria,
born 1819; began
to reign June 20, 1837;
m. Albert of Saxe-Coburg.Adolphus,
Duke of Cambridge.George,
Duke of Cambridge,
once Commander-in-Chief.
Mary,
Duchess of Teck.
Victoria Mary,
Princess of Wales.Victoria, Princess Royal,
b. 1840, m. Crown Prince
of Prussia, afterwards
Emperor Frederick.William II.,
German EmperorEdward VII.,
born 1841.Alfred,
Duke of Coburg and
Edinburgh,
died 1900.Six other
children.George, Prince of Wales,
b. 1865,
m. Victoria Mary of Teck.Princess Louise,
b. 1867,
m. Duke of Fife.Princess Victoria,
b. 1868.Princess Maud,
b. 1869, m. Prince
Charles of Denmark.Prince Edward Albert,
born 1894.Prince Albert Frederick,
born 1885.Princess Victoria Alexandra,
born 1897.Prince Henry William,
born 1900.

NOTES.

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12. Presbyterian form of church government; the government of the church by *presbyters* or elders. Each congregation appoints its own *minister* and *elders*, who form the *Kirk-Session*; its *deacons* for the management of its financial affairs; and its representatives to the *Presbytery*. The Presbyter sends representatives to the *General Assembly*, or highest court of the church. The form of church government is, therefore, highly democratic.

17. Elector Palatine; the Palatinate lay along the Rhine. Its prince as "Imperial Steward" was one of the seven officers by whom the Emperor was chosen. The governor of a *palatinate* was allowed for state reasons to exercise "royal" authority.

18. monopolies; the exclusive privileges of selling certain articles.

27. *tonnage and poundage*; a duty eventually fixed at 3s. on every tun of wine, and 5 per cent on all goods imported. *impeach*; to bring to trial before the House of Lords, the House of Commons being the prosecutor.

31. martial law; the military authority which exists in time of war, and which subjects to the rules of war persons and their properties who come within the scope of the warlike operations.

prorogued; adjourned for a time by royal authority.

32. Calvinists; believers in the system of doctrines taught by Calvin, a famous Protestant reformer and theologian, born at Noyon in Picardy 1509, died at Geneva in 1564.

33. Star Chamber; a court set up by Henry VII. It was really a committee of the Privy Council, and took its name from the decorated room in which the court met.

customs officers; the men whose business it is to see that the prescribed duty is paid on articles brought into the country for consumption.

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33. at the bar of the House; the bar is the partition separating the body of the House, to which only the members and clerks are admitted, from a small space just inside the door. Those who have been guilty of a breach of the privileges of the House are summoned to the bar for examination and censure.

36. *lawn-sleeves*. Sleeves of white lawn form a characteristic part of the dress of bishops.

40. *Episcopacy*; government of the church by bishops.

41. Act of Attainder; a law declaring a person guilty, and prescribing his punishment without trial.

44. *privilege*; the privileges of individual members of parliament are freedom of speech and person, including freedom from arrest under processes from the courts of justice.

44. *train-bands*. These partook of the nature of both the militia and the volunteers, but were greatly wanting in discipline and drill.

Hampton Court; a royal palace on the Thames. It was built by Cardinal Wolsey, and was a favourite residence of James I. and William III.

lighters; large, open, flat-bottomed boats, used chiefly in loading and unloading ships.

58. *mace*; an ornamental staff placed on the table before the Speaker while the House of Commons is sitting, or borne before him as a sign of his authority.

64. *Inquisition*; an ecclesiastical court of the Roman Catholic Church, known also as the Holy Office, for the suppression of heresy by the detection and punishment of the heretics and by other means.

65. *Piedmont*; the north-western part of Italy, lying, as its name indicates, at the foot of the mountains—the Alps.

66. *Cheshunt*; a town in Hertfordshire, on the river Lea.

68. *Convention*; a meeting of the Houses

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of Parliament without the summons of the sovereign.

10. municipal officers; members of the town-council and servants of the corporation.

78. cabal. The accident that the initials of the names of Charles II.'s chief ministers formed the word *cabal*, and the fact that that word has the meaning of an association of persons united for some secret and bad object, gave the opponents of Charles's government the opportunity of scoring an effective point against it.

75. Grand Pensionary; the state secretary for Holland during the time of the Republic of the United Provinces. In him was vested really, though not nominally, the chief power in the state.

Stadtholder. This was the name given to the President of the Republic of the United Provinces. The office became hereditary, and was vested in the House of Orange.

77. Habeas Corpus Act. It takes its name from the two first words of the writ, *Habeas Corpus ad subjiciendum* (that you have the body for submission to the court). The writ is addressed on properly supported application by a judge to the person who detains another in custody, and commands him to produce the body in court, to state the reason for detention, and to submit to the decision of the court in the matter.

78. Whig; a name applied first to the *Covenanters* in the west of Scotland, who were driven to rebellion by the persecution they suffered in the reign of Charles II. During the struggle on the Exclusion Bill, it was applied in derision to the country party, or supporters of the bill. The name was afterwards employed to indicate one of the great political parties in the state.

Tory; originally an Irish robber. The name was applied by Titus Oates to those who disbelieved in the Catholic plot. In the disputes on the Exclusion Bill, it was used contemptuously to

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designate the Court and Roman Catholic Party. From the time of William Pitt it was used to indicate an opponent of the Whigs.

81. nuncio; ambassador from the Pope.
82. lords-lieutenant; officers appointed by the crown for the management of the militia and all military matters in a county.

83. seditious libel; the publication of untrue statements calculated to bring the government into disrepute and cause public disturbance.

86. permanent officials; these hold their place so long as they do their duty, whatever party may be in power.

90. yeoman service; faithful and effective service. The phrase takes its meaning from the bravery and efficiency of the English yeomen in the wars of the middle ages.

94. financiers; men skilled in the management of the public revenues.

Chancellor of the Exchequer; the member of the cabinet who acts as Minister of Finance.

101. High Churchmen; members of the Church of England who hold exalted opinions regarding the authority of the church and the dignity of the priestly office, and attach great importance to 'Episcopacy' and the 'Apostolic Succession'. In doctrine and ceremonial they approach the Roman Catholic Church. The name came into use about the beginning of the eighteenth century. They believed in the 'Divine Right of Kings' and the duty of non-resistance, and desired the restoration of the exiled family.

Low Churchmen; members of the Church of England who are opposed to the views of High Churchmen. They supported the Revolution and the Act of Settlement, and were opposed to the restoration of the Stuarts.

110. law of gravitation; the principle that every particle of matter in the universe drags to itself every other particle with a certain definite force.

111. misdemeanour; a name applied to

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the crimes and offences of minor importance, *e.g.* a libel, &c.

112. felony; originally the state of having forfeited lands, &c., to the crown on being convicted of certain offences, now, a serious crime.

115. pocket borough; a borough, the power of electing a member of parliament for which was in the hands of one or, at the most, of a few persons.

116. First Lord of the Treasury. The head of the Treasury department was formerly the Lord High Treasurer. This office is now put in commission. There are five commissioners. The first of these is the First Lord, who is always an important member of the Cabinet, usually the prime minister.

117. Drapier's Letters. Swift wrote as a Dublin draper.

120. excise; the name given to the taxes laid on certain articles produced and consumed at home, *e.g.* spirits, beer. Certain licenses are also included in the excise duties, *e.g.* dog license.

131. Indians. The name was applied to the natives of America by Columbus and others of the early explorers through a mistaken idea that they had reached a part of India.

132. court-martial; a court for trying naval or military offences under the authority of the crown and the army act.

Voltaire (François Marie Arouet), born 1694, died 1778, the most celebrated of French writers, and one of the most voluminous. He was renowned as a wit and poet, a dramatist and historian, a philosopher and critic. cornet; the rank of a cornet, the officer who carried the colours in a British troop of horse.

133. militia; a force enrolled and trained as soldiers for the defence of the country but not kept permanently embodied in time of peace, or liable in time of war to serve out of the country.

139. Nizam; the title of the Mohammedan ruler of the kingdom of Hyderabad in the Deccan.

Nabob; corruption of Nawab (sove-

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reign or viceroy), the highest title under a Mohammedan sovereign in India.

140. Sepoys; native soldiers in the British service.

142. great Whig families; the powerful party among the aristocracy favourable to the Revolution principles. The Whig party was composed really of the great land-owners—the Cavendishes, Russells, Bentincks, Pelhams, &c.—who were able with the help of the legal and commercial classes, by means of their influence in the boroughs, to oppose successfully the king supported by the smaller land-owners and the clergy.

143. Dowager; a name given to the widow of a person of rank. The Princess Dowager was Augusta of Saxe-Gotha, widow of Frederick Prince of Wales.

family compact; an agreement between the kings of France and Spain, so called because both monarchs were descendants of Louis XIV.

147. Lord Privy Seal. The office is usually conferred on peers of high rank, who are appointed to it by letters patent. The holder of the office is a member of the Cabinet Council. He is presumed to have charge of the private seal of the sovereign, which gives authority to the Lord Chancellor to affix the Great Seal to state documents.

153. tactical slip; a mistake made in handling soldiers of a fighting force in presence of the enemy.

158. tithes; the tenth part of the profits of land and stock and the personal industry of the inhabitants, set aside for the support of the clergy.

163. Knights of St. John; a famous military and religious order of the middle ages, instituted in 1113. Their capture of Rhodes in 1310, and their stand against the Turks for the next 200 years, gained them so great renown that, after they were compelled (1523) to surrender Rhodes, the Emperor Charles V. assigned them the island of Malta in 1530.

168. yeomanry; the name given to the

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troops of horse levied among country gentlemen and yeomen on the same principle as the volunteer companies.
174. *guerilla*; irregular, carried on not by armies but by independent bands.
176. *peerage*. The peerage consists of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, barons.
180. *Capitol*, the building in which the United States Congress or parliament meets; so called after the temple and senate house of ancient Rome.
188. "double first"; a first class in the final examination for the degree both in classics and mathematics.
189. *Orange associations*; associations of Protestants, instituted in 1796, their chief object being to disarm the Catholics and to maintain the principles of the Revolution. They derived their name from William of Orange.
190. *Home Secretary*; the head of the state department concerned with the administration of the internal affairs of the kingdom.
191. *Irish franchise*; the whole system of parliamentary elections in Ireland.
194. *second reading*. In the Commons (a) a member has to obtain leave to bring in a bill; (b) the bill is presented and read the first time; (c) it is ordered to be printed, and a day is fixed for the *second reading*. This is the critical stage. If the reading is carried (d) the bill is brought before a *committee of the whole House* for amendments. (e) It is then reported to the House and (f) read a third time. The procedure in the Lords is similar, save that no leave has to be obtained for introducing the bill. When the bill has passed both Houses, and received the royal assent in the usual form, *La reine (or le roi) le veut*, it becomes law.
206. *manhood suffrage*; that every man of full age, not incapacitated as a criminal or imbecile, should have a vote.
vote by ballot; secret voting by means of a paper, marked only with a cross, and dropped into a locked box.
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206. *property qualification*. It was enacted in the reign of Anne that no man could represent a county in parliament unless he had an estate in land worth £600 a year, or a borough unless he had a landed estate of £300 a year. This qualification was abolished in 1858.
equal electoral districts; districts containing each nearly the same number of voters, and each returning one member to parliament.
207. *special constables*. In times of danger or disorder, magistrates have the power of calling on any man of full age to become a *special constable* and assist in keeping the peace.
212. *coercion acts*; acts suspending the ordinary constitutional liberties, or applying exceptional legislation where the ordinary law is not sufficient for the protection of life and property.
217. *honours of war*; the distinction, granted sometimes to a beaten foe, of marching away with colours flying, drums beating, and carrying their arms.
224. *violate the laws of caste*. The Hindoos are divided into certain castes or guilds. The members of each caste are of the same race, and usually follow the same occupation. Each caste has its peculiar religious observances and social customs, and has no social intercourse with the others. Any person who violates the laws of his caste becomes an outcast from society.
Great Mogul; the name commonly given in England to the sovereigns of Delhi. Under Akbar, in the sixteenth century, they made themselves rulers of the greater part of India.
240. *Mahdi*; the Mohammedan Messiah. Though not mentioned in the Koran, it is said that Mahomet promised that the Mahdi should be sent to complete his work, and fill the world as full of righteousness as it was then of iniquity.
241. *quixotic*; aiming at visionary or unattainable ends, like Don Quixote, the hero of Cervantes' novel.